MEMOIRS OF THE ABBE RAYNAL.

With a fine Portrait of that celebrated Writer.

IN the ſeries of memoirs, accompanied with portraits, which we have given of the moſt illuſtrious characters of all nations, it never was our intention to debaſe the dignity of biographical hiſtory by unqualified applauſe. In our liſt may be found many, of whom it is intereſting to know the hiſtory, and who have been diſtinguiſhed in the commonwealth of letters, yet of whoſe moral character or principles it is impoſſible to ſuppreſs the juſt cenſure. A general biography would not only be a moſt ridiculous, but a moſt uſeleſs work, if it contained only panegyric on the virtues of men, with a total ſilence as to their vices and failings. It would alſo be not only ridiculous and uſeleſs, but even pernicious, as violating the principles of truth, and committing a groſs fraud on the credulity of poſterity. It would ſhake all principles of belief, and reduce the beſt and the worſt of mankind to a level. To have attained diſtinction in the literary or political, or philoſophical world, may be a ſufficient title to a *niche* in the temple of biographical fame, but that fame is only valuable as it relates what may be depended on as truth, and as ground-work for reaſoning.

Theſe remarks are neceſſary on entering upon the memoirs of the celebrated Abbe Raynal, a man in whoſe praiſes the world ſome years ago was agreed, but whoſe character has failed on more mature knowledge. The materials of his life are confeſſedly ſcanty, but the change which took place in his political ſentiments, and the period at which he died, contributed to render his countrymen indifferent to his hiſtory, and thus a man who had lived in high fame, died in comparative obſcurity.

William-Thomas Raynal, commonly called the Abbe Raynal, was educated among the jeſuits, and had become one of the order. The learning of that ſociety is univerſally known, as well as the happy talents which its ſuperiors poſſeſſed, of aſſigning to each member his proper employment. Raynal, however, after having acquired among them a taſte for literature and ſcience, had probably become refractory, for he was expelled from the order; and the cauſe of his expulſion, according to the Abbe Barruel, was his impiety.

With the real cauſe of his expulſion, M. Barruel may be much better acquainted than we can be: but we have a ſtrong ſuſpicion that his impieties had not then reached farther than to call in queſtion the ſupreme authority of the church; for our author himſelf aſſures us, that he did not utter his atrocious declarations againſt Chriſtianity till he had ceaſed to be a member of the order of Jeſuits. He then aſſociated himſelf with Voltaire, D'Alembert, and Diderot, and was by them employed to furniſh the theological articles for the *Encyclopedie*. But though his religious opinions were certainly lax, and his moral principles very exceptionable, he could not even then be what, in a Proteſtant country, would be deemed a man remarkable for impiety; for he employed the Abbe Yvon, whom M. Barruel calls an old metaphyſician, but an inoffenſive and upright man, to write the articles which he was engaged to furniſh. In the conducting of this tranſaction, he ſhowed, indeed, that he poſſeſſed not a proper ſenſe of honour; for he paid poor Yvon with twenty-five louis d'ors for writing theological articles, for which he received himſelf ſix times that ſum. This trick was diſcovered, Raynal was diſgraced, and compelled to pay up the balance to Abbe Yvon; but though he had thus ſhown himſelf to be without honour, it is difficult to believe that he had yet proceeded ſo far as to blaſpheme the Saviour of mankind, ſince

he had employed a Chriſtian divine to ſupply his place in the *Encyclopedie*.

His firſt work of eminence, and that indeed upon which his fame is chiefly built is his 'Political and Philoſophical Hiſtory of the European Settlements in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies.' That this hiſtory is written in an animated ſtyle, and that it contains many juſt reflections, both political and philoſophical, is known to all Europe; for it has been tranſlated into every European language. Its beauties, however, are deformed by many ſentiments that are irreligious, and by ſome that are impure. It was followed, we think, about 1780, by a ſmall tract, entitled 'The Revolution of America, in which the author pleads the cauſe of the revolted coloniſts with a degree of zeal, cenſures the conduct of the Britiſh government with a keeneſs of aſperity, and diſplays a knowledge of the principles and intrigues of the different factions which at that period divided the Engliſh nation, that ſurely was not natural to the impartial pen of a philoſophic foreigner. Hence he has been ſuppoſed to have been incited to the undertaking, and to have been furniſhed with part of his materials, by ſome perſons who oppoſed the meaſures of the Engliſh government, and ſecretly fomented the American cauſe. Be this as it may, he propagated, both in this tract and in his hiſtory, a number of licentious opinions reſpecting government and religion, of which he lived to regret the conſequences.

A proſecution was inſtituted againſt him by the French government, on account of his hiſtory of the Eaſt and Weſt Indies; but it was conducted with ſo little ſeverity, that he had ſufficient time to retire to the dominions of the king of Pruſſia, who afforded him the protection he ſolicited, although his majeſty's character was treated by the author in his book with no great degree of veneration. Raynal alſo experienced the kindneſs of the empreſs of Ruſſia; and it is not a little remarkable of this ſingular perſonage, that although he was always ſevere in diſcuſſing the characters of princes, yet the moſt deſpotic among theſe heaped upon him many marks of favour and generoſity. The Abbe alſo received a very unuſual mark of reſpect from a Britiſh houſe of commons. It was once intimated to the ſpeaker, that Raynal was a ſpectator in the gallery. The buſineſs was immediately ſuſpended, and the ſtranger conducted to a more convenient and honourable ſtation. How different was the conduct of Dr. Johnſon, who, when a friend advanced to him with our author, ſaying, 'Will you give me leave, doctor, to introduce to you the Abbe Raynal?' turned on his heel, and vociferated 'No, ſir!' We are far from wiſhing to vindicate the ſage; but it was perhaps as proper as the politeneſs of the houſe of commons.

The great trait of Raynal's character was a love of liberty, which, in his earlier writings, he did not properly define; but when he lived to ſee ſome of the conſequences of this, in the progreſs of the French revolution, he made one glorious effort to retrieve his errors. In the month of May 1791, he addreſſed to the conſtituent aſſembly one of the moſt eloquent, argumentative, and impreſſive letters that ever was written on any ſubject; a letter which, if the majority of them had not been intoxicated with their newly acquired conſequence, muſt have given ſome check to their mad career.

One conſequence of this letter was very ſingular. Thoſe who could not anſwer it, nor reſiſt the conviction of its arguments, wrecked their vengeance on Raynal, by endeavouring to prove that he did not write the celebrated Hiſtory of the Indies, and this became the cant of the day. To illuſtrate this, we ſhall give the following extract of a letter from an Engliſh gentleman then at Paris, addreſſed to the editor of one of the London newſpapers.

'I am ſorry to add,' ſays this gentleman, 'that the reputation of the

Abbe Raynal in Paris, where he is perſonally known, is very different from what he enjoys in London, where he is only known as an author. That Philoſophical hiſtory which you aſcribe to him, is really, in no proper ſenſe, his work, but was produced by a combination of the labours of ſeveral ingenious men, among whom I am inclined to think, he contributed the ſmalleſt part. We might indeed give him ſome credit for lending his name to a book, which contained ſo many bold truths, which it was then dangerous to publiſh; but even here, there is need of caution; for under the ancient ſyſtem, deceit and fraud were carried to ſuch a pitch of refinement, that it was not uncommon for men of letters to concert ſtratagems with miniſters, to get themſelves put into the Baſtille, to raiſe their reputation, and to make their fortune in the world. Whatever be in this, you may aſcribe the hiſtory of the European ſettlements to Perrijeat la Roque, Dubreuil, Diderot, Nargion, or Holbash, who were all concerned, as well as the Abbe Raynal.'—

This letter was written by Mr. Thomas Chriſtie, who wrote a volume ſome time after on the French revolution; but when our readers conſider that he was then intoxicated with the fallacious proſpects of that revolution, and that this accuſation againſt the Abbe Raynal was not produced until he had written againſt the proceedings of the aſſembly, they will eaſily be able to appreciate the information, that he was not the author of the celebrated hiſtory.

A hiſtory of the parliament of England, and of the Stadholderate, and ſome other works, are attributed to Raynal, but are little known. He eſcaped the general danger, during the reign of Robeſpierre, but was ſtripped of his property, died in poverty, March 1798, at the advanced age of eighty-four.

ANTIQUITIES.

THE Eaſt India Company has received from its agent, at Bagdad, twelve bricks of thoſe which are ſtill remaining near Hilla, on the Euphrates, on the ſpot where the ancient Babylon, according to major Rennel, and other geographers, is ſuppoſed to have ſtood. On theſe bricks characters are engraved perfectly ſimilar to thoſe which are found in Perſia on the ruins of Chehilminar, about a day's journey from Shiraz, and commonly called Perſepolitan. Theſe characters, which have already been noticed by Le Bruyn, Kämpfer, Niebuhr, and others, have hitherto been reckoned peculiar to theſe ruins, being only found on blocks of marble or on gems dug up there. By the diſcovery, however, of the preſent bricks, it has been proved that they were uſed alſo in other parts, having been found among the ruins of the ancient capital of Chaldæa. Beſides, having received by this means more copious ſpecimens of that ſpecies of writing, it will become eaſier to decide whether theſe characters are of the alphabetic, or ſyllabic, or hieroglyphic kind, whether they ought to be read from the right or from the left, horizontally or perpendicularly, from the top or from the bottom. Perhaps each word may be expreſſed by a particular group, like thoſe ancient characters of the Chineſe publiſhed lately in London by the learned Dr. Hagar, where, inſtead of *nails*, like thoſe now made uſe of, leaves, flowers, bracelets, ſnakes, and other repreſentations, are employed, arranged in different poſitions to expreſs different words.

THE SCOTSMAN'S TALE.

[From the Fourth Volume of Miſs Lee's Canterbury Tales.]

TO underſtand the following extract from this ingenious tale, it will be neceſſary to give a ſhort ſketch of the preceding part. The Scotſman in his travels abroad falls in with Claudina, a young French emigrant lady; a mutual paſſion takes place, which is thwarted by St. Victoire, her brother, a high ſpirited nobleman, who places her in a family to which her lover can have no acceſs. The latter, in the mean time, hears of his father's failure, and is obliged to return to England, where he accepts of an humble employment in a counting-houſe. Here he becomes acquainted with Vaudreuil, a young clerk in his own ſituation, whom he humanely aſſiſts with ſmall ſums, but of whom he is jealous, as he diſcovered a picture in his poſſeſſion, which reſembles Claudina. Vaudreuil having borrowed a ſum of money from the Scotſman, diſappears, and in his abſence the Scotſman's uncle dies and leaves him a fortune. At this criſis our extract begins.

I WAITED impatiently the return of Vaudreuil; for I was perſuaded that he would return, or that I ſhould at leaſt hear from him, though it were only in diſcharge of the pecuniary obligation between us; and I was neceſſarily obliged to employ myſelf, in the interim, in the regulation of my uncle's concerns. I did this with the more alacrity, as it was my intention, the moment they were in any ſafe train, to embark for Peterſburgh, bear the news of my own change of fortune to Claudina, decide by her looks and her reception of me upon the intereſt I ſtill held in her heart, and, if I found that unchanged, prevail with her to withdraw, either openly or in ſecret, from the authority of St. Victoire, and accompany me to England as my wife.—A long and cruel fortnight paſſed, however, without any tidings of Vaudreuil. During that period I could hardly forbear ſmiling, at intervals, to ſee thoſe who now called themſelves my friends imputing the indifference and half melancholy which hung about me to a hypocritical ſorrow for my uncle's death. I believe I was looked upon by theſe men of the world as a complete diſſembler; and ſo far were they from calculating what paſſed in my heart, that I have no doubt they thought me ſecretly overwhelmed with exultation and joy.

I had been ſo indefatigable in my exertions, as ſoon to prepare every thing for my approaching departure. I meditated in what manner I ſhould, without ſaying too much, communicate to my mother the nature of the buſineſs that carried me abroad; and I was walking, deeply engroſſed with my own reflections, along the Strand, when, happening to caſt my eyes upon a hackney-coach that paſſed me, I ſaw Vaudreuil in it. It was driving very faſt; and beyond my reach, before I had recollection to ſtop it.—I could entertain no doubt, however, that it was him, for he bowed to me ſmilingly as he paſſed. His countenance was more lighted up; and, from the glance I caught of him, I thought he ſeemed better dreſſed than uſual.

This was a myſtery, the unravelling of which at once engaged all my attention. That Vaudreuil ſhould be in London, ſhould know himſelf to be my debtor, yet neither write nor call upon me; ſhould be aware that he ſtood expoſed to the moſt degrading ſuſpicion, yet coolly bow to me from a hackney-coach, ſeemed almoſt beyond belief. I went to his former lodgings; but he had not been heard of there. I then haſtened to the counting-houſe where he had been uſed to attend, but no tidings of his return had reached any of the clerks. A letter, however, was put into my

charge, addreſſed to him, that had been ſent thither by the people with whom he had lived. I knew it inſtantly to be the hand-writing of Claudina, and I could, therefore, no longer doubt it to be her picture which he wore.—All my ſuſpicions again recurred. I was on the point of tearing open the letter, in-order to ſatisfy them:—but I remembered I had no claim over Vaudreuil, but one I ſhould have bluſhed to profit by; and that, if he had even robbed me of Claudina's affections, it was ſufficiently probable that he never knew I had engaged them. No other acquittal but that of the petty money concern between us was, in the apparent ſtate of the buſineſs, neceſſary on his part; and ſuch was the confidence inſpired by the kind of character I had obſerved in him, that I was ſtill perſuaded, if there was any thing treacherous in his conduct, he would at length appear to anſwer it. The letter had no ſhip-mark: I examined that of the poſt; it was from Hull.—My voyage to Peterſburg would then be fruitleſs. Claudina was evidently not there.—The appearance of Vaudreuil would be, perhaps, alike uſeleſs to me. She would probably have beſtowed herſelf upon him before we met;—for, if there was no deceitful motive in her voyage, why did ſhe not write to me? I had not even heard from her for a conſiderable time before. But this circumſtance I had hitherto imputed to ſome accidental failure of her letters: that before me announced a different reaſon for her ſilence; and I had the torture of ſuppoſing ſhe was at that very moment in London, yet as far out of the reach of my penetration as if in the wilds of Siberia. I returned home extremely melancholy; and, to my great ſurpriſe, found waiting for me there the very perſon I had been over half the town in ſearch of—in other words, Vaudreuil himſelf. In my hand I held Claudina's letter, which I had taken poſſeſſion of, leaving word where it was to be found; and I advanced toward him with a turbulence and impatience of which he did not ſeem at all ſenſible. His countenance was, indeed, as it had appeared to me in the coach, animated and cheerful: in a word, he looked happy, and that was enough to make me miſerable.

'I come,' ſaid he, ſtepping toward me, 'to demand your congratulations, and to announce a piece of good fortune in which you will ſympathize with me.'

'Spare yourſelf the relation,' ſaid I, ſullenly—'I know the good fortune that has befallen you without its being told. You are married—or on the point of being ſo.—And, to ſhow you that I am better informed of your affairs than you ſuppoſe, I can even name the faithleſs woman who has beſtowed herſelf upon you.'

'When I do marry,' ſaid Vaudreuil, laughing, 'I hope it will not be a faithleſs woman, at leaſt.—You are, in truth, a moſt ingenious gueſſer: and after you have pointed out the fair one who means to do me the favour of beſtowing herſelf upon me, I ſhall know what portion of gratitude is due both to you and to her. In the interim, however, aſſure yourſelf that it is not matrimony, but that which has of late engroſſed a much greater ſhare of the thoughts of mankind, politics—which is in queſtion with me.—I have received undoubted information that the new government in France will allow me to recover at leaſt a conſiderable portion of my family claims and property there. I have never borne arms againſt my country; and ſhould I prove ſucceſsful in my application, I ſhall be enabled to ſerve a brother who is leſs fortunately circumſtanced, and a ſiſter inexpreſſibly dear to me.'

'You have a ſiſter!' exclaimed I.

'Undoubtedly I have,' returned Vaudreuil, ſmiling archly.

'And you wear her picture'—

—'At my boſom!' and he drew it from thence.

'Ah, it is Claudina!—*my* Claudina—my *own* Claudina,' cried I,

ſnatching and kiſſing it rapturouſly a thouſand times. Vaudreuil could not forbear ſmiling at an étourderie ſo foreign to all he had yet ſeen of my character.

'I am ignorant how ſoon ſhe is to be your Claudina,' ſaid he at length, gently diſengaging the portrait; 'but I know ſhe is at preſent mine; and I am not quite aſſured that ſhe will permit me to authoriſe ſuch violent careſſes.—Let us be ſeated, my kind friend,' he added, recovering his uſual intereſting gravity of tone and manner; 'and if you can command theſe tranſports of yours,—ſo little in uniſon with our ideas of Engliſh phlegm,—I will tell you, what I am ſure you will have real pleaſure in hearing—I will tell you that your generous interpoſition reſcued Claudina and both her brothers from a ſtate of half-deſpondency; that your pecuniary kindneſs ſupplied with neceſſaries and comforts the proud ſpirit and ſuffering frame of St. Victoire:—finally, that it has afforded Claudina herſelf the means of coming up to London, and of thanking you in perſon.—Theſe, believe me, are not dreams,' ſaid he, perceiving me ſtare with aſtoniſhment: 'it is but very lately that I have known the hiſtory of my own family: ſuch as it is I will relate it to you.—I need not tell you that I am much younger than St. Victoire—there is, in fact, only the difference of two years between Claudina and myſelf:—but I look older—for I have ſuffered,'—he added, ſighing. 'From the time I had any uſe of reaſon, it unfortunately happened that mine did not accord with that of my family—I was, therefore, an early outcaſt from it, and remained in France, when my relations quitted it, without their deigning to take the ſmalleſt intereſt in my after fate. My name was prohibited to Claudina's lips, as attaching diſgrace to her own; and it was the conſtant habit of ſuppreſſing it that probably prevented its reaching your ears. I was not much more fortunate, however, in my political career than my father and my brother had been. The fickle and too enthuſiaſtic nation of which I was an individual became ſanguinary, and diſgraced the nobleſt aim of humanity. I was nearly a victim to the guillotine; but a friendly banker at Paris concealed me, and by his aſſiſtance I paſſed in ſafety to Rouen. I was not without abilities, and am among thoſe of my countrymen who think it no diſgrace to uſe them. I applied myſelf under a borrowed name to buſineſs: but I did not find that I was wholly ſafe from perſecution, and was, therefore, adviſed to quit France. My heart fondly turned toward St. Peterſburgh, where I believed I ſhould find my mother, my brother, and my ſiſter. As I was now rather more unfortunate than themſelves, I conceived that my offences would be expiated in their eyes; and I accordingly embarked. I ſoon found that I had had the misfortune to loſe one of the three, without being happy enough to recover the other two; for my reception from St. Victoire was neither brotherly nor generous. It was indeed ſuch as determined me to meet him no more; for I was not without ſome ſhare of the family pride when it was rouſed. I ſaw Claudina accidentally for a quarter of an hour, but he would not permit me to converſe with her freely. I wrote to her, however; and I requeſted from her my mother's picture, as a memorial of my family. She did not poſſeſs it; but ſhe ſent me her own, together with an earneſt intreaty to ſee me again. No doubt ſhe thought me very unkind; for I was ſo circumſtanced that I could not enter the liſts with St. Victorie on that ſubject, and he eluded my addreſs when I attempted to ſend her another letter. I, therefore, quitted St. Peterſburgh without having an opportunity of vindicating my ſentiments to her, and came over to England; where, by the continued aſſiſtance of my worthy friends at Rouen, I obtained the employment in the courſe of which I was fortunate enough to meet with you.—

Ah! your generous heart, my dear friend,' ſaid he, preſſing my hand, 'has ſympathiſed with mine during this narration!—May it be thus that good actions ever come home to the boſom of him who performs them!—You reſpected the innocent tenderneſs of Claudina, and that tenderneſs will, I hope, henceforward be unremittingly exerciſed to reward you!—You extended your philanthropy and good offices to a foreigner whom your countrymen did not always treat with the indulgence due to the unfortunate:—you have gained by it a friend, who will, to the lateſt hour of his life, be the friend of Engliſhmen, and the protector of thoſe of any country to whom protection is neceſſary.'

Vaudreuil ſpoke this with an energy and ſerioufneſs that was extremely affecting: or elſe its being my own panegyric cauſed it extremely to affect me. He ſpoke Engliſh tolerably; but on this occaſion he expreſſed himſelf throughout in French: and I know not how it happens, but my tranſlation ſeems to have loſt all the fire and ſpirit of the original. Nothing now appeared neceſſary toward my felicity but to ſee Claudina. I told him as much; and at the ſame moment, recollecting the letter of hers I ſtill poſſeſſed, I offered it to him.—'I have converſed with her ſince it was written,' ſaid he, putting it in his pocket; 'and, therefore, know its contents.—St. Victoire is at this moment extremely fatigued, and in no condition to receive you. Claudina, who has not been many hours in town after a moſt rapid journey, will herſelf be the better for a ſhort repoſe; and as ſhe cannot calculate that I ſhould meet with you ſo ſoon, ſhe will probably find it. You do not yet know by what means I became poſſeſſed of your ſecret. Have you no curioſity?—or are you ſo inhoſpitable that you are already ſolicitous to get rid of me?'

Vaudreuil was not wrong in his ſurmiſe. I could with great pleaſure have taken him by the arm, and led him out of my houſe toward that in which I ſhould find his ſiſter. I had not the leaſt curioſity to know how he became acquainted with my *ſecret*, as he called it. It appeared to me that the ſtory would have done equally well at any time: and, in plain terms, that he could not have found one more mal à propos for telling it than that preſent; but I had my meaſures to keep. Vaudreuil had generouſly humbled both himſelf and his family too much before me, to allow me any liberty of action where they were concerned. I had, therefore, nothing for it but patience: and I endeavoured to collect myſelf to a decent attention. I was reſtleſs, however, at firſt: but the ſubject was ſtill Claudina and her brothers;—it therefore again inſenſibly intereſted and tranquilliſed me.

'I had not been long in England,' ſaid Vaudreuil,' before I wrote to St. Victoire. We had parted from each other in high diſpleaſure: but when I recollected that it might be perhaps for the laſt time, I could not reſolve to leave him and Claudina without any traces of me; or myſelf without a place in the remembrance of either. I thought it vain, however, to write to her; as he would, doubtleſs, again ſuppreſs my letter. Without being circumſtantial, I gave him to underſtand that, on my arrival in England, I had fallen upon a plan by which I might ſecure myſelf from the horrors of penury. To ſay truth, I was afraid of explaining the nature of my employment, leſt I ſhould irreparably offend his ariſtocratical ideas; but I made it plain that I ſolicited nothing from him but brotherly good wiſhes and regard. I exhorted him to allow Claudina at leaſt ſometimes to write to me, and gave him my addreſs for that purpoſe. I received no anſwer to this letter: as indeed I hardly expected I ſhould. A conſiderable time paſt away, every hour of which added to my melancholy, as I began to believe that I was fated to be always an

alien from my family connections; when, on the evening, or rather night, of that day on which you and I had been in the country together, I returned late to my lodgings, and, to my ſurpriſe, found a letter lying there for me, directed in a female hand. It was from Claudina, who wrote, at the deſire of St. Victoire, to requeſt my protection and aſſiſtance. They had landed together from a Ruſſian merchantman at the port of Hull; driven abruptly from Peterſburgh by the indiſcretion of St. Victoire. Claudina will give you the particulars of his quarrel with a Ruſſian officer of diſtinction. They had a meeting in conſequence of it, when both were wounded: the Ruſſian ſeverely. My brother, notwithſtanding his own ſuffering, was put under confinement; and death or exile to Siberia ſeemed the puniſhment that awaited him. The recovery of his antagoniſt, however, and an intereſt he had the addreſs to create for himſelf in the heart of a female favourite, mitigated his ſentence. He was commanded to quit the Ruſſian territories within a limited time, and to return thither no more under pain of death. The period allowed him to prepare for his departure was extremely ſhort: his ſickneſs, together with his extravagance, had left him totally unprovided with money, nor could his friend the marquis de S—— aſſiſt him; for he had been himſelf obliged to withdraw from St. Peterſburgh ſome little time before; and his wife, from diſtreſs of circumſtances, had retired to her father, the duc de C——. In this exigency, without aſſiſtants, adviſers, or friends, St. Victoire and Claudina could think of no better plan than that of coming over to England, and throwing themſelves upon me—Me!—whoſe miſerable and impoveriſhed ſtate you are ſo well acquainted with!—The calculation they formed of it was, however, very different from the truth. In writing to St. Victoire, I had forborne to draw it in its worſt colours, both for the reaſons I have before given you, and the fear leſt he ſhould ſuſpect me of wanting any pecuniary ſervice from him. This delicacy on my part was the ſource of their error: they embarked full of chimerical hopes. Claudina has ſince told me, that, although ſhe dared not hint as much to St. Victoire, there was yet another heart in your iſland on which ſhe relied even more entirely than on mine—how juſtly, I have ſince had ample occaſion to prove!—Their paſſage was rough. My brother's wound, which had been too haſtily cloſed, opened again; but for Claudina's knowledge of Engliſh they would have been totally helpleſs; and ſuch was altogether their ſituation ſoon after they landed, that no reſource remained but to write to me, and exhort me to come and extricate them from it. Alas! I had no means to do ſo; and Claudina's letter was, therefore, a ſtab to my heart. At the moment I received it I neither poſſeſſed a ſingle guinea, nor the means of raiſing one. You were the only human being to whom I had ever applied on a ſimilar occaſion, and I now ventured to throw myſelf a ſecond time upon you. By an effort better ſuited to the liberality of your mind than to your circumſtances, you ſent me a more conſiderable ſum than I had requeſted. I travelled night and day to reach Hull, and fortunately arrived there ſooner than I had been expected; when I immediately called in proper aſſiſtance to St. Victoire, who was ſufficiently altered both in conſtitution and manners to excite my tendereſt ſympathy. As to dear Claudina, ſhe and I had ſoon cauſe to regret that we had not earlier underſtood each other's heart. Nothing could be more delightful than this firſt intercourſe between two beings ſo nearly allied in blood, yet hitherto ſtrangers. Your converſation and habits of thinking had enlightened her mind too much to allow of her cheriſhing the prejudices which had originally diſunited me from my family; and I was no leſs delighted with the cultivation of

her judgment than with the charms of her perſon. I told her exactly my own ſituation; and, without preciſely naming you, deſcribed the generous friend whoſe aſſiſtance had enabled me to undertake my journey. Claudina, on her part, was not leſs frank. She related to me all the ſecrets of her heart, and beſpoke an intereſt in mine for the man ſhe loved. Imagine our mutual ſurpriſe—our lively and exquiſite pleaſure, when we found that we had in reality been talking of one and the ſame perſon!—There was nothing after this diſcovery ſo much the wiſh of either as to reach London with all poſſible diſpatch. Claudina had already written a long letter to you, in order to account, by a relation of the late events that had befallen St. Victoire, for a ſilence that had exceeded her uſual limits. At my deſire ſhe ſuppreſſed this letter, I hardly entertained a doubt but on the receipt of it you would have come to us at the hazard probably of great inconvenience to yourſelf; and, to ſpeak frankly, I alſo promiſed my own heart an indeſcribable ſatisfaction in being the firſt to announce to you thoſe delightful ſenſations in which I was certain you would ſympathiſe. Claudina did not, I aſſure you, make the ſacrifice I demanded of her without ſome regret: but ſhe did make it: and the rather, as we had reaſon to ſuppoſe St. Victoire's health would amend rapidly enough to allow of our ſetting off without much delay. In fact you will perceive by the time of my abſence that we made all poſſible ſpeed. Our circumſtances, nevertheleſs, did not allow us to chooſe the moſt commodious method of travelling, and my brother is of conſequence ill and exhauſted. My firſt buſineſs was indeed, by Claudina's expreſs deſire, to ſeek you: nor was there more than one intereſt in the world that could have detained me in the purſuit of you. It was preciſely that, however, which happened to occur. I met on the way one of my countrymen, from whom I learnt ſome particulars relative to France which I had long moſt anxiouſly waited to hear. He referred me for further authentic details to another mutual friend, who was that very morning to ſet out on his return thither. Not a ſingle moment was to be loſt. I drove with all the rapidity I could command to the lodgings of the latter, and was fortunate enough to meet with him. As the ſituation of our affairs was in all reſpects alike, the account he gave me of his, left me no reaſon to doubt the event of my own repreſentations at Paris. I entruſted to him a memorial and other papers I had long ſince prepared againſt a ſimilar occaſion, and I rely ſo much both on his zeal, and the juſtice of my cauſe, as to aſſure myſelf that I ſhall quickly obtain the proper paſſports and ſecurity. If, in addition to this, I ſhould be happy enough to recover my family property, how joyfully ſhall I ſhare my affluence with the man who was the friend of my poverty!'

Vaudreuil had ſpoken ſo long, that I really began to apprehend he never intended to conclude. He was no talker in general, and therefore I wondered the more at him. But his heart was full of his ſubject, as I could ſee in his eyes, and I believe he felt an abſolute neceſſity for thus pouring it out. In ſpite of my impatience I had not failed, however, at intervals, to be both flattered and touched by his recital: and under any other circumſtances no gratification would have been greater perhaps than that of liſtening to it. I had juſt then, however, a much greater in view, and I, therefore, hurried him away. I had gathered from the concluſion of his diſcourſe that he was yet ignorant of my uncle's death, and the change it had occaſioned in my worldly concerns. This was not ſurpriſing; ſince that I ſhould have become, during his abſence, either a gueſt or even a conſtant reſident in my uncle's houſe, was among the occurrences of life that might naturally happen. It was now time to explain my ſituation to him.

I could ſee that he was much ſtruck with it, and felt as though Claudina and himſelf were ſuddenly rendered bankrupts both in fortune and in love. But the native dignity and candour of his mind made him quickly recover from the ſurpriſe, and he rejoiced in my proſperity.

'Poor St. Victoire!' ſaid he, ſmiling, as we entered his lodgings; 'his pride will not even have the conſolation of believing that he is going to take an impoveriſhed man to his boſom!—I was far from being ſure that St. Victoire's pride was of ſo generous a nature: on the contrary I was ſtrongly inclined to ſuſpect that my affluence would be the only conſoling circumſtance to him under the mortification of having me for a brother-in-law. I made no comment, however, on Vaudreuil's ſpeech; nor indeed had I time. Claudina was before my eyes—ſhe was in my arms: more lovely, as it appeared to me, than ever: for that pure pleaſure which ſprings immediately from the heart embelliſhed her features; her perſon was in reality improved.—She was grown taller:—her figure, without loſing its ſlightneſs, was more formed: and ſhe had a decided character of countenance. A ſcene of the moſt unalloyed tranſport ſucceeded, and it was not immediately that I could recollect myſelf enough to think at all of St. Victoire. When I did, I was not unmoved by his paleneſs and apparent depreſſion. His arm was ſtill in bandages, and the loſs of blood which he had ſuſtained had altered him very conſiderably. The ground between us had been rendered perfectly ſmooth by the kind offices of his brother and ſiſter. We therefore ſaluted each other with ſome degree of cordiality; and both ſtudiouſly avoided all reference to the paſt. As the houſe I had lately come into poſſeſſion of was ſpacious, I earneſtly intreated the whole family to take up their abode there: and this was the more neceſſary, as the ſituation of the invalid demanded comforts and an attention he could not ſo well receive elſewhere.

'It ſeems only a queſtion whether we ſhall live with you, or on you, my good friend,' ſaid Vaudreuil, perceiving my propoſal had given birth to ſome ſcruples:—'for my part I think it is very clear which we ought, for our own gratification, to chooſe.' To this deciſion Claudina and St. Victoire, without much difficulty, acceded. I ſtaid ſeveral hours with them, and then returned home, to give my mother notice of the viſitors ſhe was ſo ſoon to receive. Her ſurpriſe was at firſt very great. She queſtioned me abundantly concerning Claudina; and I could eaſily diſcover that ſhe ſecretly regretted my not having choſen an Engliſhwoman: though, even in that caſe, I felt that one of her own country would have been ſtill preferable in her eyes; but ſhe was too indulgent and too deeply intereſted in my happineſs to raiſe any obſtacles to my preſent plans, and on my part I was perſuaded that ſhe had only to ſee the woman I had choſen in order to be convinced no other was ſo well worthy to be my choice.

Before evening every thing was in readineſs to receive our gueſts. My mother herſelf accompanied me at a very early hour to fetch the lovely Claudina to that home of which ſhe was ſoon to become the miſtreſs. My uncle's carriage, as he had been old and infirm, was a conveyance perfectly convenient to St. Victoire, and he arrived at my door without much fatigue.

'It is the fate of our family to be overwhelmed with your bounties, monſieur,' ſaid he, as I gave him my arm to mount the ſtairs.—I thought it was ſaid proudly too. He was ſufficiently a man of the world, however, not to overlook that portion of its goods with which I was ſurrounded. I ſaw him eye the apartment we ſat in, which had been indeed ſomewhat expenſively furniſhed by my uncle, and I could fancy I heard him ſay to himſelf—'Humph! This then is the

houſe of an Engliſh merchant!'—Vaudreuil and Claudina, on the contrary, ſaw not a mirror or a carpet it contained. That dear girl's ſpirits ſoon roſe in ſympathy with mine, and we became a pair of the moſt giddy, laughing lovers that can eaſily be imagined. To look at us, indeed, any body would have ſuppoſed we had never known a ſorrow or a care: and Vaudreuil, who had hitherto ſeen nothing in his ſiſter but a pretty penſive young woman, or in me but a ſombre man of buſineſs, was perfectly aſtoniſhed at the metamorphoſis in both. We quickly ſeduced him, in ſpite of his habitual ſerioufneſs, into a participation of our mirth. And St. Victoire himſelf, though a little ſtarched at firſt, yet, before the evening cloſed, forgot his indiſpoſition, his pride, and his prejudices, and condeſcended to have more than one hearty laugh along with us. I was very ſorry when the hour of parting and repoſe came. Nevertheleſs I ſlept ſoundly, for I was certain of ſeeing Claudina again in the morning; and, in return, ſhe has ſince aſſured me ſhe never had a more delightful ſlumber than that ſhe enjoyed under the protection of my roof.

I had judged rightly with reſpect to my mother: ſhe felt herſelf the happieſt of creatures on being thus ſuddenly emboſomed in a youthful circle, each individual of which looked up for her approving ſmile to ſanction their own. The ingenuouſneſs, the youthful gayety, the ſweet playfulneſs of Claudina's character and manners, completely won her affections, and ſhe ſoon lived in her ſight nearly as much as I did: nor did the former fail to cultivate this tender regard by every office of duty and attention on her part.

Our firſt buſineſs was to make a little eſtabliſhment for St. Victoire that ſhould enſure the recovery of his health, and then to forward thoſe meaſures that promiſed to be favourable for Vaudreuil. We were ſucceſsful in both inſtances. The applications made by the latter were approved by the men in power of his own country, and he had very ſoon the ſatisfaction of learning that he might return thither without danger—to ſay the leaſt; but, in fact, he had every reaſon to believe that he ſhould be reinſtated in great part of his rights. This was certainly no muſic to the ears of St. Victoire: nevertheleſs it was better than that the whole family ſhould be proſcribed; and the generous character of his brother left the count no cauſe to doubt but he would derive his ſhare of advantage from the return of the former to France. Nice as this buſineſs was to ſettle, Vaudreuil and I contrived to arrange it between us. For, in ſpite of his political opinions, he was not without a delicate but ſtrong repugnance to the diſpoſſeſſing an elder branch of the family of his rights in life. As to Claudina, ſhe was out of the queſtion. I was rich enough for both, and I, therefore, lent no ear to any thing that could be ſaid on that ſubject. She was now, alas! not ſo ignorant of the real ſufferings of poverty as ſhe had been; and this knowledge, which I had at one time ſo deprecated and earneſtly endeavoured to ſhield her from, became in the end an affecting monitor that taught her to feel for others when ſhe ceaſed to have any thing to feel or fear on that head for herſelf.

My mourning for my uncle obliged me to poſtpone my marriage for a ſhort time: it would indeed have been poſtponed ſtill longer but for the neceſſity of Vaudreuil's return to France. Both Claudina and myſelf were ſolicitous that our union ſhould be ſanctioned by the preſence of that tender and amiable brother whom we were ſo ſoon to loſe. How ſincerely did we all lament that the tide of human affairs ſhould ſeparate beings united by every principle of affection or intellect!—How gloomy was the conſideration that the human race at large, accuſtomed to blood, ſhould forget in mutual animoſity that ſacred tie com-

mon to all!—Surely it is for the liberal-minded and humane of every nation to counteract the deſtructive influence of general prejudice, by extending and ſtrengthening, in their private habits, thoſe ſocial feelings which bid man acknowledge his fellow-creature in every quarter of the globe.

On the day preceding that fixed for Vaudreuil's departure, Claudina and I were united. St. Victoire himſelf beſtowed her upon me. I ſhould have been better pleaſed to have owed the gift, dear as it was, to his brother: but Vaudreuil and I underſtood each other, and that was enough. A moſt ſorrowful parting ſucceeded: but it has been the only real chagrin that has clouded my life ſince my marriage. There are heretics who will ſmile at this ſentence. To ſuch I anſwer, that I have not yet been married many years; and even if I had——but they will ſmile again!—There is no curing theſe ſort of people!

My mother, good woman, often looks at us, and obſerves, 'that marriages are (according to the old proverb) certainly made in Heaven.' So alſo ſay I! but ſhe, in the ſimplicity of her heart, draws her concluſions from the extraordinary circumſtance that occaſioned our meeting; I, mine, from the ſtill more extraordinary one of our deſiring never to part!

ON NATIONAL REWARDS AND MONUMENTS OF BRAVERY.

To the Editor of the Univerſal Magazine.

Sir,

AS the preſent war has occaſioned inſtances of naval bravery, more remarkable and glorious than any upon record at any former period of our hiſtory, the attention of the nation has been very properly called to the conſideration of ſuch rewards, and public teſtimonies of eſteem as may hand down the memory of our Howes, St. Vincents, Duncans, and Nelſons, to the lateſt poſterity. Two objects are here in view, to perpetuate the memory of the actions for the benefit of future generations, and to honour and perpetuate the memory of the actors. Permit me, ſir, to make a few remarks on the moſt probable means of effecting theſe purpoſes.

But firſt let me advert to a propoſal made many years ago, by the celebrated dean Swift, or as he pretends (and perhaps it was really ſo) by a friend of his. After mentioning the uſeleſſneſs of *medals* to this purpoſe, which are generally confined to the party thus honoured, or to the cabinets of the curious, it is ſuggeſted by this writer, that medals, bearing teſtimony to valour or great actions in the political world, ſhould be made the *current coin* of the kingdom. By this means they might be diſperſed into the remoteſt corners of the empire, and come into the poſſeſſion of the poor as well as of the rich.

This ſcheme, Mr. Editor, is, at firſt ſight, accompanied with many advantages, of which that of general, or I may ſay univerſal circulation, is the moſt conſiderable; but if we examine it a little more attentively, we ſhall perhaps find that it is loaded by inſuperable obſtructions. I am fully convinced that our government would never permit the *current coin* of the kingdom to bear any other ſtamp than that which indicates the form of the conſtitution, the head of the ſovereign. This has been the practice from the earlieſt origin of current coin, and ſo well aware of the utility of this have mankind been, that even uſurpers have taken the ſame precaution to point out to the people where the ſupreme authority reſides. In France, when monarchy was deſtroyed, every pains was taken to call in and recoin the money, which bore the ſtamp of the king.

But, it may be ſaid, that while the

head of the ſovereign occupies one ſide of a coin, the other may be appropriated to the commemoration of ſome glorious victory. This, I apprehend, could hardly be ſeriouſly propoſed. In our ideas of the Britiſh conſtitution, there is nothing ſuperior, and nothing can be equal to the king, nor be permitted, if I may ſo ſpeak, to rival him in the public attention. This objection, therefore, it would be almoſt as indelicate to diſcuſs as to propoſe.

Another reaſon why it would be improper to truſt the commemoration of great and glorious actions to the current coin, is that the ſtamps would be frequently changed, and, I am proud to ſay it, this muſt have been the caſe in the preſent war, and thereby a confuſion introduced by the multiplication of different coins, of which the makers of falſe coin might eaſily avail themſelves. One great advantage of our current coin is its varying ſo little in form, and the loweſt of the people thereby acquiring a ready knowledge of it at the ſlighteſt inſpection, and being able with tolerable facility to diſtinguiſh the real from the forged, which could not be the caſe, if our coin had been made to vary with the atchievements of the four heroes I have mentioned above, all of which took place in little more than as many years.

With reſpect to *medals*, there can be no poſſible objection, as far as they can commemorate. I would certainly have as many of them made as there is a demand for, and ſome have been executed in the preſent war, but not with that maſterly ſkill, which inclines a collector to preſerve them in his cabinet. Thoſe executed by the order of government are entirely confined to the parties. They will be valuable as family-memorandums, but can go no farther.

Some time ago, a very grand deſign was ſet on foot by a ſociety of public ſpirited gentlemen, who propoſed to raiſe by ſubſcription a ſum ſufficient to defray the expences of a monument of our naval victories, which might at once mark our eſteem for the heroes, and evince the ſplendid liberality and munificence of the nation. A conſiderable ſum has been already ſubſcribed, and it is probable that when peace returns, and nothing remains to be added to the four ſplendid victories, to which every one alludes, a ſum ſufficient for the purpoſe will be accumulated. To this plan I wiſh all imaginable ſucceſs, but I do not think it *all* that ſhould be done, and for this obvious reaſon, that it is *one* object only, and muſt be confined to *one* ſpot. If erected in the metropolis or near it, it can be ſeen only by the inhabitants of the metropolis, or thoſe who viſit it. Thouſands and tens of thouſands of his majeſty's ſubjects, will no more ſee it than they ſee St. Paul's, or the monument, and have as confuſed ideas of it, if they read or hear of it. Opinions differ as to what this ſhould be, ſome propoſing a naval pillar, others a coloſſal ſtatue. For my purpoſe it is not material which is concluded upon, becauſe it is the purpoſe of this letter to ſuggeſt, that the more perfect commemoration and general remembrance of our great national tranſactions, would require that in *every county* of the kingdom, on ſome elevated ſpot, there ſhould be *a ſomething* of the kind. I cannot ſee how the memory of national honours and glories can be perpetuated, unleſs the nation at large has its memory refreſhed, as well as the metropolis. It is, indeed, proper that the metropolis ſhould take the lead in ſuch deſigns, and that it ſhould ſhow its preponderance of wealth and ſpirit, as the head and heart of the kingdom; but in order to render the honour more perfect, every inhabitant ought to be enabled to point at ſomething near him. We ſhall be convinced that this is the proper mode to perpetuate our glories, and to make the memory of them produce a ſtriking effect, if we only conſider what muſt be the feelings of a foreigner riding through the country, and una-

ble to paſs over twenty or thirty miles without meeting with ſome remembrance of Britiſh valour, erected by Britiſh munificence. The vicinity of a great road would be naturally choſen for the erection of ſuch monuments, the ſhape, form, height, expence of which would reſt with the taſte of the county; and the various counties would no doubt enter into an emulation which, moſt probably, would produce ſpecimens of ſkill and loyalty very creditable to their feelings.

Having taken the liberty to ſuggeſt this as the moſt proper plan for a general *national* commemoration of naval or military bravery, I beg it may be underſtood that I am not objecting to the propoſed naval pillar, or whatever elſe it may be. It ſtill forms a part, but only *one* part of my plan. With reſpect to the ſituations of the others, let me alſo ſuggeſt, that beſide Portſmouth and Plymouth, which muſt obviouſly occur in every conſideration of the ſubject, the towns or villages, which produced our heroes, have a natural claim to preference, and the ſight of ſuch diſtinguiſhed monuments of national gratitude could not fail, I humbly preſume, to keep alive a ſtrong ſenſe of bravery and independence, and inſpire youth with proper objects for emulation.

I am, ſir, &c.

BRITANNUS.

ANECDOTE OF CHARLES THE SECOND.

To the Editor of the Univerſal Magazine.

Sir,

AS the following anecdote contains a remarkable circumſtance, belonging to the Engliſh hiſtory, if you think it worthy a place in your Miſcellany, it is at your ſervice. It may be neceſſary to inform you, that it is a tranſcript from the hand-writing of the famous Mr. Lockhart, author of the Memoirs of Scotland; and that the original manuſcript was inſerted in a blank leaf of a volume of lord Clarendon's Hiſtory of the Rebellion, to which author the introduction to the ſtory particularly refers.

It is very ſtrange, that among ſo many dangers, to which king Charles II was expoſed, and from which he was ſurpriſingly and miraculouſly delivered, neither this (lord Clarendon) nor any other author I have met with, takes the leaſt notice of one of a very extraordinary nature, which happened to him in Holland, and which was as follows.

The king, when at Bruſſels, being deſirous and reſolved to ſee his ſiſter the princeſs of Orange, but withal under a neceſſity to make the journey with the utmoſt ſecrecy, did communicate his deſign to no perſon whatſoever. He ordered —— Fleming (a ſervant of the earl of Wigton) who was in his ſervice, and of whoſe fidelity he neither then nor after did doubt, ſecretly to provide a couple of good horſes, and have them ready at a certain place and time of the next enſuing night, by his majeſty appointed: that Fleming, with theſe horſes, ſhould remain alone till he heard from the king.

At the time appointed, the king (having gone to bed, and afterward dreſſed himſelf, and privately gone out of a back-door, and leaving only a letter to ſome of his ſervants in whom he confided, with an account of his having gone from them for a few days, and with directions to keep his abſence as ſecret as poſſible under pretence of being indiſpoſed) came to the place: there he found Fleming, with the horſes, as he had directed. He then acquainted Fleming of his deſign of going to the Hague; and not regarding the hazards he might be expoſed to, away he went with this ſlender equipage and attendance, travelling through the moſt ſecret byways, and contriving it ſo that he came to the Hague, by ſix in the

morning, and alighted at a ſcrub inn in a remote part of the town, where he was confident none would know him under the diſguiſe he was then in. He immediately ſent Fleming to acquaint his ſiſter where he was, and to leave it to her to contrive the way and manner of his having acceſs to her, ſo as not to be known.

Fleming having diſpatched his commiſſion in a very ſhort time (leſs than an hour) was no ſooner returned to the king (finding him in the room where he left him, and where he had been ſtill alone) than an unknown perſon came and aſked of the landlord, if two Frenchmen had not alighted at his houſe that morning? The landlord replied, that indeed two men had come, but of what country he knew not. The ſtranger deſired him to tell them, he wanted to ſpeak to them; which he having done, the king was much ſurpriſed, but withal inclined to ſee the perſon. Fleming oppoſed it, but the king being poſitive, the perſon was introduced, being an old reverend-like man, with a long beard, and ordinary grey clothes; who looking and ſpeaking to the king, told him, he was the perſon he wanted to ſpeak to, and that all alone, on matters of importance. The king believing it might perhaps be a return from his ſiſter, or being curious to know the reſult of ſuch an adventure, deſired Fleming to withdraw; which he refuſed, till the king, taking him aſide, told him there could be no hazard from ſuch an old man, for whom he was too much, and commanded him to retire.

They were no ſooner alone, than the ſtranger bolted the door (which brought the king to think on what might or would happen) and at the ſame time falling upon his knees, pulled off his very nice and artificial maſk, and diſcovered himſelf to be Mr. Downing (afterward well known by the name of ſir George, and ambaſſador from the king to the ſtates, after his reſtoration) then envoy or ambaſſador from Cromwell to the ſtates, being the ſon of one Downing, an independent miniſter, who attended ſome of the parliament-men, who were once ſent to Scotland, to treat with the Scots to join againſt the king, and who was a very active virulent enemy to the royal family, as appears from this hiſtory (lord Clarendon's.)

The king you may eaſily imagine was not a little ſurpriſed at the diſcovery. But Downing gave him no time for reflection, having immediately ſpoke to him, in the following manner: that he humbly begged his majeſty's pardon for any ſhare or part he had acted during the rebellion againſt his royal intereſt: and aſſured him, that though he was juſt now in the ſervice of the uſurper, he wiſhed his majeſty as well as any of his ſubjects; and would, when an occaſion offered, venture all for his ſervice; and was hopeful, what he was to ſay would convince his majeſty of his ſincerity; but before he mentioned the cauſe of his coming to him, he muſt inſiſt that his majeſty would ſolemnly promiſe to him not to mention what had happened and what he was to ſay, to Fleming, or any other perſon whatſoever, until it pleaſed God his majeſty was reſtored to his crowns, when he ſhould not have reaſon to deſire it concealed; though even then he muſt likewiſe have his majeſty's promiſe, never to aſk or expect he ſhould diſcover how or when he came to know of his being there.

The king having ſolemnly engaged in the terms required, Downing proceeded, and told, that his maſter the uſurper, being now at peace with the Dutch, and the ſtates ſo dependant and obſequious to him, that they refuſed nothing he required, had with the greateſt ſecreſy, in order to make it more effectual, entered into a treaty, by which, among other trifling matters agreed to *hinc inde*, the chief and indeed main end of the negociation was, that the ſtates ſtood engaged to ſeize and deliver up to the uſurper the perſon of his majeſty, if ſo be at any time

he ſhould happen, by chance or deſign, to come into their territories, when required thereto by any in his name;—and that this treaty, having been ſigned by the ſtates, was ſent to London, from whence it had returned but yeſterday morning, and totally finiſhed yeſternight between him and a private committee of the ſtates. He repreſented his maſter's intelligence to be ſo good, that a diſcovery would be made even to himſelf (Downing) of his majeſty's being there; and if he neglected to apply to have him ſeized, his maſter would reſent it to the higheſt, which would infallably coſt him his head, and deprive his majeſty of a faithful ſervant. And being deſirous to prevent the miſerable conſequences of what would follow, if his being here was diſcovered, he reſolved to communicate the danger he was in, and for fear of a future diſcovery he had diſguiſed himſelf, being reſolved to truſt no perſon with the ſecret. He then propoſed that his majeſty would immediately mount his horſes, and make all the diſpatch imaginable out of the ſtates' territories: that he himſelf would return home, and under pretence of ſickneſs, lie longer in bed than uſual; and that when he thought his majeſty was ſo far off, as to be out of danger to be overtaken, he would go to the ſtates, and acquaint them that he underſtood his majeſty was in town, and require his being ſeized in the terms of the treaty. That he knew they would comply, and ſend to the place directed; but on finding that his majeſty was gone off ſo far as to be ſafe, he would propoſe to make no farther noiſe about it, leſt it ſhould diſcover the treaty, and prevent his majeſty's afterward falling into their hands. The king immediately followed his advice, and he returning home, every thing was acted and happened, as he propoſed and foretold.

The king having thus eſcaped this imminent danger, moſt religiouſly performed what he had promiſed, never mentioning any part of this ſtory, till after his reſtoration, and not then deſiring to know how Downing's intelligence came (which he never diſcovered) though he (the king) often ſaid it was a myſtery, for no perſon knew of his deſign till he was on horſeback, and that he could not think Fleming went and diſcovered him to Downing. Beſides, he ſo ſoon returned from his ſiſter, he could not have time, Downing having come much about the time Fleming returned.

I have heard this ſtory told by ſeveral, who frequented king Charles' court after the reſtoration; particularly by the earl of Cromartie, who ſaid, that next year after the reſtoration, he, with the duke of Rothes, and ſeveral other Scots quality, being one night with the king over a bottle, they all complained of an impertinent ſpeech, Downing had made in parliament, reflecting on the Scotch nation, which they thought his majeſty ought to reſent ſo as to diſcard him from court, and withdraw his favour from him. The king replied, he did not approve what he ſaid, and would reprove him for it; but to go further he could not well do, becauſe of this ſtory, which he reported in the terms here narrated, and which made ſuch an impreſſion on all preſent, that they freely forgave what had paſſed, and Rothes aſked liberty to begin his health in a bumper.

TO DESTROY BLACK BEETLES.

TAKE ſome ſmall lumps of unſlacked lime, and put it into the chinks or holes from which they iſſue, it will effectually deſtroy them; or, ſcatter it abroad on the ground, if they are more numerous there than in the holes.

ORIENTAL DIALOGUES.

By the celebrated HERDER.

The Name of Herder, *ſays the Tranſlator of this Work, has long been diſtinguiſhed in the Annals of Theology, Philoſophy, and Literature; and the* Dialogues *which are here offered to the Publie, will, no doubt, be conſidered as an intereſting Specimen of the Piety, Genius, and Taſte of that eminent Man.—We ſelect the* Third *of theſe* Dialogues, *as conveying a very favourable Idea of the entertaining Manner, and engaging Fancy of the Author, and which the Editor has transfuſed into our Language with great Succeſs.*

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THE following day, Alciphron was punctual to his engagement to paſs a poetical morning with his friend;—he met him at the appointed place, and Eugenius began the converſation in the following manner:

I ſhall ſhow you to-day, my friend, a picturesque compoſition, much richer than the *Table of Cebes*; for inſtead of confining ourſelves, as we did yeſterday, to particular objects ſeparately conſidered, we ſhall have occaſion to take an extenſive and connected view of things. When you ſee that immenſe dark-coloured veil before us, in which all beings ſeem to be ſhut up, as if they were waiting for the light, does it recall nothing remarkable to your thoughts?

ALCIPHRON. You mean, perhaps, the *ſtate of the dead* in the eaſtern philoſophy.

EUGENIUS. We ſhall not begin our converſation with them. I indeed thought of the *ſcheol*, but only ſo far as this denomination is given to the ſtate of the *unborn*, who are waiting for the light, and hope that it will bring to them joy and happineſs. Do you recollect that night in which Job curſeth the hour of his birth? In the *ſcheol* of oriental mythology and poetry, the unborn nights and days lie, as it were, in a profound ſleep. God from his throne looks down upon them, and calls them forth according to his good pleaſure; and they rejoice that they are permitted to paſs from the choir of their *ſiſters*, into the proceſſion of the years.

'Let the day periſh in which I was born; and the night in which it was ſaid, there is a ſon born.

Let that day be darkneſs,

Let not God regard it from above.
Neither let the light ſhine upon it.
Let darkneſs and the ſhadow of death ſeize upon it.
Let clouds dwell over it.
Let every calamity terrify it.
That night! let darkneſs cover it.
Let it not be joined to the days of the year.
Let it not come into the number of the months.
Lo! let that night be ſolitary.
Let no joyful ſong be heard therein.
Let them curſe it, that curſe the day.
Let the ſtars of the twilight thereof be dark.
Let it look for light, but find none.
Let it never ſee the eyelids of the morning.
Becauſe it ſhut not up the womb of my mother, and hid not from my eyes all my ſorrow!'

Have you ever ſeen a more ſtriking deſcription of a dreadful night, in which a ſon of affliction laments his birth, or in general, of a ſolitary dismal darkneſs, in which no ſtar twinkles, and on which the dawn is never to ariſe? You know that Shakſpeare deſcribing ſuch a night ——

A. He is not inferior to the eaſtern bards, in his deſcriptions of gloomy and terrifying objects. But, my friend, I do not ſee in the paſſage, you have repeated any mention of children yet unborn.

E. The region of the unborn is ſilent, and without form, like the night: its place is in the darkneſs—in the centre of the earth: there they are incloſed, and are waiting for the light, as all the creatures now before us are waiting for the dawn. When the hour of their birth arrives, God ſhall call them forth.

A. This repreſentation is entirely compoſed of ſenſible images.

E. Such in general is the poetry of the Hebrews. They know nothing, for example, of the *chaos*, in which atoms or indiviſible particles wander to and fro; this is a fanciful repreſentation of things, which we have received from the Greeks. But the Hebrews ſpeak of a *dark ſea*, which the wind of the Almighty ſets in motion; and methinks this image is by far the moſt beautiful, becauſe it is the moſt juſt. Such, in effect, was the primitive ſtate of our earth, as we learn from its firſt appearance. It muſt have remained, during a courſe of ages, under water, until it was anew rendered habitable by the order of the Creator. This image has forms and limits; but the monſter *chaos* has neither the one nor the other.

A. This *breath* or ſpirit of God, which moves over the ſurface of the dark, watery waſte, has ſomething in it peculiarly impreſſive; the idea of it excites a certain tremor or thrilling in my frame.

E. It has always been employed by the orientals, as the moſt natural image of that life, power, and motion, which are comprehended in the idea of *creation*; for the conception of *ſpirit* ſeems to have proceeded originally from hearing the wind, which, more eſpecially in the night, we are apt to conſider as having its peculiar powers and voice.

A. You recall to my thoughts the viſion of a nocturnal ſpirit, which we find in Job. It is an image, and yet formleſs and undefined—a paſſing, fluttering, breath—a ſound, a murmur like the voice of the wind, yet withal the power of a ſpirit. It made the hair of Job's fleſh ſtand up, and filled him with perturbation and terror. It harrows up his ſoul with fear and wonder; hear him ſpeak:

'There came to me a word in ſecret;
Mine ear heard it;—it was a gentle ſound:
In the terrifying hour of night-viſions:
At the time when deep ſleep falleth upon men:
Then fear and trembling came upon me:
A ſhuddering went through all my bones:

Then a ghoſt paſſed before me:
All my hair ſtood of an end:
It ſtood ſtill—but I could not diſcern its form:
An image ſtood before my eyes:
Then was ſilence—and I heard a voice ſaying,
Shall mortal man be more juſt than God?'

E. It is exactly as you ſaid, an image and no image—ſilence and a voice, and the ſhapeleſs form can only be announced by a powerful effect or operation. But behold! the lovely dawn appears—let us bid farewell to nocturnal viſions, and adore the Father of Lights!

'Bleſs the Lord, O my ſoul:
O Lord my God, thou art very great;
Thou cloatheſt thyſelf with light as with a garment!
Thou ſtretcheſt out the heavens as a tent.'

When the firſt morning aroſe, thou, O great Creator! didſt call the Light good, and didſt conſecrate it as an everlaſting emblem of thy preſence and glory, as an emblem of all joy and purity;—of all wiſdom, goodneſs and ſanctity. God dwells in light, and his countenance beams forth paternal benignity on his children. Salvation and bleſſing flow from his preſence. He ſends beams of light into the dark abodes of mortals, and makes bright rays of hope and joy to ariſe on their night of calamity and diſtreſs. It is the glory of the Creator that he hath formed the *light*: and it is the brighteſt ray of his paternal character, that he maketh a light to riſe on the human ſoul, which extends its views beyond this twilight of its preſent exiſtence, and tranſports its hopes to ſplendid and eternal manſions. Is there, my friend, in the whole compaſs of Creation, any production more worthy than light, of being conſidered as the *garment* of Jehovah, who in his eſſence is unſearchable, and without this bright *effluence* * of that adorable eſſence, would dwell, with reſpect to us, in entire darkneſs? Light is alſo repreſented as the dwelling of the Almighty, and ſometimes as his ſwifteſt meſſenger, which comes, as it were, on the wings of his omnipreſence, and with the velocity of thought, tranſmits its comfort to mortals.

A. The poetry of the Hebrews muſt then abound with beautiful and picturesque deſcriptions of light.

E. No poetry is perhaps equal to it in this reſpect. The very term which expreſſes *light*, is, in this language, elevated and noble both in ſound and ſenſe. It is the emblem of all joy. Diſmal and dejecting are the deſcriptions of darkneſs; while the dawn breaking through the morning clouds, and the genial luſtre of the riſing day, are painted by the Hebrew bards with the moſt cheerful and pleaſing colours. All the images of the *twilight* expreſs ideas of waiting, expectation, and hope, and the *dawn* is repreſented as their joyful accompliſhment. The morning-ſtar which we ſee before us, is conſidered by the Hebrew bards as the ſon of the twilight; for in the oriental poetry, Light and Darkneſs have their palaces, their genealogies, their reſpective offices and ſpheres of action. In Job, the Dawn appears as a hero, who puts to flight malefactors, who take from robbers their ſtrong holds and hiding places, gives form and colour to all objects, and as it were, by new impreſſions made upon them, changes their aſpect. From the womb of the morning comes forth the dew, whoſe innumerable drops are the brilliant offspring of the *dawn*. Behold that beautiful harbinger of day before us, blending light and ſhade in ſuch a charming variety of gradations, and extending itſelf over us like the vault of heaven!

'He ſitteth upon the circle of the earth, and the inhabitants of the world are as graſshoppers before him.

* Milton, Book III, l. 6.

'He ſtretcheth out the heavens as a curtain, and ſpreadeth them as a tent to dwell in.' (Iſ. xl. 22.)

Are you curious to hear ſomething of the mythology of the heavens?

A. On this ſubject I apprehend we ſhall find a great diverſity of opinions among expoſitors, more eſpecially with reſpect to what Moſes ſays of the *expanſe* between the waters, and the true meaning of his account of that object.

E. There is no occaſion for any controverſy on this ſubject; becauſe the images employed in treating it are common and familiar, and, at the ſame time, ſuitable and elevated. The moſt ancient idea of this object is not that of a glaſſy vault; for glaſs was the diſcovery of a much later period; and it was later ſtill, that it was applied to any uſe that reſembles the object under conſideration. According to the earlieſt mythology, the heavens were formed of water, and even the throne of God, ſurrounded with darkneſs, was founded upon the waters. We ſee theſe ideas entertained ſo far down as the time of David; they are expreſſed in one of his moſt celebrated hymns of praiſe:

'He ſtretcheth out the heavens like a curtain,
He layeth the beams of his chambers in the waters;
He maketh the clouds his chariot;
He is carried on the wings of the winds.'

You ſee, my friend, that in theſe later times no mention was made of a *glaſſy vault*, but only of a *tent* or *curtain*, and of celeſtial chambers formed out of the waters. This was alſo conformable to the traditions of the Arabians. According to them, God called forth the heaven from the waters of the deep, and formed them as a ſmoke or *miſt*. Do not you admire theſe deſcriptions, even when you conſider them merely as imitations or images of the phenomena of nature?

A. I have indeed been always much pleaſed with them; and the deſcriptions alſo of clouds, rain, and thunderſtorms, have always appeared to me picturesque and beautiful. It ſeems as if the faint and languid orientals, conſidered the heavens only as a magazine of ſtores, deſtined for their refreſhment, and expected from thence a plenitude of bleſſings, which their parched land ſo often refuſed them.

E. True! and they have embelliſhed this pleaſing idea, with every kind of ornament of which it is ſuſceptible. Sometimes they repreſent the univerſal Father as binding the clouds together, and making them the receptacles of the water of life, for man and beaſt: at others, we ſee him driving theſe ſame clouds to and fro, to moiſten and refreſh the land; and that in ſuch rich abundance, that even the deſerts, where no human creatures dwell, are clothed with verdure; and are ſaid by a beautiful figure of ſpeech to *ſing with joy*. This wonderful diſplay of providential care, in thus diffuſing genial moiſture and refreſhment, is ſublimely expreſſed by God's making the clouds his chariot, and the dark waters of the firmament his pavilion. 'He bows the heavens and comes down—He rends his tabernacle, opens the windows of his palace, and ſatisfies the earth with fructifying ſtreams.' This laſt imagery ſeems to be of a later date, when God was conſidered by men as the King of Heaven.

A. If I am not miſtaken, he was very early repreſented under that character.

E. Still earlier as the Father of a family—the univerſal Father extending his paternal care to the preſervation and ſupport of man and beaſt. How many paſſages do we find in the Pſalms and Prophets, which have a manifeſt relation to this affecting character? How many ardent ſupplications ſent up to heaven for refreſhing ſhowers, and what imagery can be at the ſame time more ſublime and affecting than that which repreſents 'the eyes of all things as waiting' upon the univerſal Parent, who ſends them 'rain from heaven, and fills

their hearts with food and gladneſs?' It is alſo remarkable, that beautiful images of God's paternal goodneſs, are frequently borrowed from the dew and rain; an ardent recourſe to this goodneſs is deſcribed under the figure of a parching and burning thirſt:

'As the hart panteth after the water-ſprings, &c.' Images of this kind, give to poetry a ſocial glow and ſympathetic influence, by which men, animals, plants, every thing in ſhort, which is ſuſceptible of life and vegetation, are concentrated in one general bond of union—and the Supreme Head of the great family in heaven and earth is the PARENT of them all.

A. But how came they to conſider the heavens as a *firmament?*

E. No doubt, on account of their ſtability, luſtre and beauty, and the fine ſapphires which ſeem to compoſe the majeſtic vault extended over us. It may poſſibly have been an ancient opinion, that the firmament was a vault of ice, from which hailſtones often deſcended. The Arabians frequently employ images, which ſhow that they looked upon lightning as an emiſſion of ſparks from the ſapphires which compoſe the vault of heaven. Moreover, while the heavens were conſidered as the temple and palace of Jehovah, ſo was the pure azure of the firmament ſuppoſed to be the floor of *his* habitation, and the roof or ceiling of ours. I think, however, that the people or tribes who lived in *tents*, would be the moſt naturally diſpoſed to repreſent by this image the dwelling-place of the Deity. Accordingly, they tell us that he daily ſpreads his *tent*, and faſtens it to the pillars of heaven and the ſummits of the mountains: and this tent is for them an aſylum, a place of ſafety, reſt, and paternal protection, in which God lives with his creatures.

A. And how do they conſider the earth?

E. The anſwer to this queſtion is eaſy. You have only to proceed with the hymn of praiſe in which the Pſalmiſt continues his deſcription, or rather his ſublime picture of the creation. (Pſalm civ.)

What a delightful exhilarating view does the ſacred bard take here of the earth. It is the verdant mountain of Jehovah which he hath raiſed out of the water—a ſeat of pleaſure which he hath raiſed above the ſea, as a habitation for myriads of living creatures. The ſeries of images which the poet here ſucceſſively employs, forms, preciſely, a natural hiſtory of the earth. Firſt, the waters ſtand above the hills: then the mountains riſe in proſpect: after this, the valleys deſcend, and the waters ſend through them their refreſhing ſtreams. Finally, God aſſigns to them all their proper bounds, and eſtabliſhes the land. Now the valleys become dry and verdant: the rivers flow in their channels, and the ſtreams and rivulets rejoice the valleys with plants and flowers. Here the beaſts of the field flock together—the birds of the air ſend forth their notes—and the banks of the rivers begin to be lined with trees. We may find, perhaps, in the book of Job, more ſublime and bold deſcriptions of the formation of the earth, but none more beautiful and exact than this of the Pſalmiſt.

A. Truth and conformity with nature, conſtitute no doubt the beauty and perfection of ſuch pictures as theſe: they are even eſſentially required in ſuch pictures. What pleaſure or profit are to be derived from thoſe mythologies which teach us nothing? What do I gain by reading in the northern Edda, that the firmament is the jaw-bone of a vanquiſhed giant, out of whoſe bones the earth was formed, and from whoſe blood the rivers and fountains proceeded. Totally different from this is the poetry of the Hebrews, which unites beauty with truth, enlivens them both with the moſt intereſting feelings, and is thus the poetry of the underſtanding and the heart.

E. The orientals in their poetical views of nature ſeem indeed to unite theſe three characters: for their de-

ſcriptions are *beautiful*, *true*, and *affecting*. How intereſting as well as beautiful, for example, are their views of the natural world rendered by their *manner* of repreſenting the flowers, plants, and the other parts of the vegetable creation? They aſcribe a kind of life almoſt to all things, and are peculiarly fond of that figure of ſpeech, by which a ſort of *perſonality* is attributed to inanimate beings. Thus God is repreſented as the foſtering Parent of the plants and trees to which he has granted the bleſſings of growth and fecundity. He waters them from the clouds of heaven: he preſerves them, though in a ſtate of apparent death, during the ſeverity of the winter, and breathes into them new life and vigour, at the return of the vernal gales and ſummer ſun. This revival of the vegetable world and its blooming verdure, is a beautiful emblem of the reſurrection of the dead, as its conſtant preſervation excites a clear and affecting idea of the care of a benign providence. The loves and connubial union of plants, ſeem to be objects of attention in the earlieſt times, and we find the palm-tree, the cedar, the vine, and the olive, furniſhing moſt pleaſing and even elevated ideas to the Hebrew bards. It is much to be lamented, that ſo many of their productions are loſt. Had we more of their fables and paſtoral poems, ſuch as the parable of Jotham, and of their national poetry, ſuch as the Song of Songs, we ſhould undoubtedly find in them a poetical treaſure, rich in ideas, images, and characters, much more beautiful and diverſified than thoſe which we find in the dialogues between the Roſe and the Zephyr, the Roſe and the Nightingale, the Traveller and the Turtle-dove. At preſent we muſt content ourſelves with a ſingle collection of poetical compoſitions which breathe the perfume of roſes, and ſend forth the ſoft accents of the turtle-doves: ſuch are the ſongs which expreſs the love of Solomon. But, my friend, the ſun mounts towards the meridian.

A. Don't be in a hurry.—Favour me rather with ſome beautiful hymn to the ſun, if the Hebrews have any compoſitions of that kind.

E. The Hebrew poetry admits of no hymns or ſacred ſongs addreſſed to the ſun, or to any other object in the natural world, for that would be deemed idolatry: and you know with what care the Hebrews were obliged to avoid every thing of this kind. Job ſays:

'If I beheld the ſun when it ſhined,
Or the moon walking in brightneſs,
And my heart had been ſecretly enticed,
And my mouth kiſſed my hands in ſign of homage:
Then ſhould I have been chargeable with a puniſhable tranſgreſſion,
For I ſhould have denied the God above.'

Such a ſerious way of thinking in religion as this, rendered it impoſſible to addreſs any hymns or poetical oblations to the luminaries of heaven. On the contrary, it was the great and predominant object of the Hebrew poetry to oppoſe this kind of idolatry, becauſe of all the created beings which were objects of worſhip among idolaters, there were none which attracted ſo much the admiration of the orientals, as the king and queen of heaven. Accordingly, in the poetry of the Hebrews, the ſun and moon are conſtantly repreſented as the *ſervants* of God: and here again we ſee in this poetry, grandeur and truth, preciſion and beauty, happily united:

'God ſaid—Let there be two great lights for the rulers of the ſeaſons!
And they were placed in the great firmament,
As rulers of the ſeaſons.'

Thus you ſee that they are rulers of the ſeaſons, but they are ſuch under God: they are his ſubſtitutes, his vicegerents, but ſtill his creatures; and in this manner are they always mentioned in the poetry of the Hebrews.

A. But when thus employed they do not ſeem of much uſe to this poetry.

E. On the contrary—they produce a great effect. The ſun, moon, and ſtars, are here repreſented as living beings. They have in the heavens, dwellings and tents: and this opinion is ſtill entertained by the Arabians and other eaſtern nations. This idea gives much ſpirit and action to poetical deſcription, as you may ſee in the following beautiful paſſage, which is ſuperior, perhaps, to any thing you will find in the Grecian Poets:

'The ſun hath ſet his tabernacle in the heavens,
From whence he goeth forth as a bridegroom from his chamber,
And rejoiceth as a ſtrong man to run his race:
He goeth forth from one end of the heaven,
And his circuit is to its other end,
And he fills the world with his heat.'

The moon and ſtars have alſo their habitations, in which they are repreſented as confined by the Creator, when they are to be darkened, or to which they retire with precipitation and terror, and hide themſelves when the ſplendour of Jehovah appears. We ſee a ſublime example of this in the book of Habakkuk, where, when God comes forth in his war-chariot to divide the land, the ſun and moon ſtand fixed in aſtoniſhment at the doors of their tents. When his lightnings flaſh and his arrows fly, they conceal themſelves as confounded at the preſence of his glory. The ſublime paſſage runs thus:

'The mountains ſaw him and trembled:
The overflowing of the water paſſed by:
The deep groaned:
The hills lifted up their hands;
The ſun and moon ſtood ſtill in their habitation:
At the light of thine arrows they went,
And at the ſhining of thy glittering ſpear.'

More majeſtic perſonifications than theſe ſeem ſcarcely poſſible. Heaven and earth *liſten* with profound attention: the moſt rapid powers of nature *ſtand ſtill*, and the moſt ſplendid are darkened. Thus alſo the ſtars become God's *armed legions*; and ſometimes rejoicing *children*. Whatever is pure, beautiful, and immortal, is compared with the ſtars, and in them the angels are often perſonified.

A. But for what purpoſes are theſe ſhining hoſts employed?

E. For all ſuch purpoſes as God executes by the intervention of his ſervants. The ſun, by his very name, is repreſented to us as a *meſſenger*: but he is not acknowledged as the ſource of vegetation, fertility, and beauty. The growth of the plants is not aſcribed to the ſun, but to the ſupreme Parent who quickens the vegetable world by light, dew, and fructifying ſhowers. It is only the province of the ſun to lead on the ſeaſons:—he is the King of the Earth, but under God. The ſtars march forth as his armies and give battle: to them are aſcribed water-ſpouts and inundations; and in the ſong of Deborah there is a beautiful perſonification of this kind. If they appear as angels or meſſengers, theſe meſſengers may ſometimes miſtake their errand; in ſuch caſes He ſtops them in their courſes, and doth not place in them an unlimited confidence. He ſees ſpots in their luſtre, and the heavens are not *pure in his ſight*. Finally, when the future, the grand period of God's government ſhall arrive, then ſhall the ſun ſhine with a ſeven-fold increaſe of luſtre, and the moon ſhall be as bright as the ſun. Now, my friend, a ſpecies of poetry which takes in ſuch a ſublime and connected view of the nature of things, and arranges all created beings in regular claſſes, which repreſents the Deity as the univerſal Shepherd, who knows the ſtars as if they were his flock, calls them by their names, ſcatters them in a variety of ſplendid cluſters through the blue vault of heaven—girds Orion, binds the ſweet in-

fluences of Pleiades*, and layeth up his treaſures in the ſouth. Such poetry is, I ſay, the offspring of heaven and earth——

The length of the above extract obliges us to omit a part toward the concluſion, but enough has been given to induce a reader of taſte to conſult theſe dialogues, in which the ſublimities and beauties of the ſacred poetry are pointed out in ſo engaging a manner.

* Job xxxviii, 31.

FAMILY PRIDE DEFENDED.

To the Editor of the Univerſal Magazine.

Sir,

ALTHOUGH the obſervations on Family Pride, in your laſt Magazine, in a letter ſigned *Strictor*, are valuable as far as they go, they do not embrace all the circumſtances of a ſubject to which it ſeems very neceſſary to call public attention. I profeſs myſelf an advocate for *family pride*, as it is called, and have only to regret that in ſpeaking or writing on the ſubject, we have ſo frequent occaſion to uſe the word *pride*, which is almoſt always underſtood in a bad ſenſe, although certainly capable of a far more honourable interpretation.

To ſay that a man is *proud*, is ſaying enough to bring him into contempt. Thoſe therefore who bring the accuſation, ſhould condeſcend to ſpecify what kind of pride they mean, and if this were done, I have no doubt we ſhould often find that proud men were entitled to our admiration. The worſt kind of pride, the only kind of pride which is a vice, and ought to be avoided, is that pride which a man has in things not in themſelves valuable, and which leads him to look down upon and deſpiſe what is not in itſelf deſpicable. On the other hand, the pride of being deſcended from a line of anceſtory illuſtrious for valour or virtue, for genius or public uſefulneſs, is highly honourable; and not leſs ſo is that pride, come from where it will, which prevents a man from degrading his character by mean actions, which creates independence of mind, and which teaches him to pay court only to merit, in whatever rank or ſtation it may be found.

There are, therefore, at leaſt two kinds of pride which add value and dignity to a character, and without which it is impoſſible for any character to be diſtinguiſhed from the *vulgar*—a word which I uſe to expreſs whatever is low in talents, in accompliſhments and in public or private virtue; and, conſequently, as Mr. Fielding long ago determined, there is a *great* vulgar, as well as a *little*.

With regard to family pride, nothing can be more natural than that a man deſcended from a line of illuſtrious merit, ſhould be proud of the circumſtance, becauſe this pride will *naturally* lead him to an imitation of the virtues by which they acquired the higheſt diſtinctions that could flow from the ſource of honour. When I ſay that it muſt *naturally* lead him to this imitation, I ſhall probably be told of men who are proud of their deſcent, and yet diſgrace it by unworthy actions; and perhaps recent circumſtances may be appealed to as proofs. I may be told of the diſgraceful figure which the heirs of ſome great families have lately made in our courts of juſtice, where they come to eſtabliſh nothing, except how very little deſerving they are of the honours to which they are born to ſucceed. And I ſhall probably be told that theſe very men rank the higheſt for *family pride*.

I do not, however, conceive that this injures my poſition; becauſe upon the common principles of human nature, I have every reaſon to doubt the fact. Such men are not proud of their *families*. They are only proud

of the *riches* which have deſcended to them, without any trouble on their part, and which enable them to inſult public decency and public morals with impunity, A profligate man cannot be *proud* of his family, becauſe he can have no conception of the virtues which enobled them. When we ſee the heir of a noble family waſting his time, his wealth, his conſtitution, in an aſſociation with gamblers and ſtrumpets; when we ſee him incapable of higher enjoyments than ſuch company affords; and irreclaimable by advice or experience, what ideas can he form of the dignity of bravery, of virtue, or genius. Is he deſcended from a great warrior, or a wiſe legiſlator, what notion can he form of the talents of ſuch profeſſions, whoſe own mind conceives nothing that is not groveling, that is not within the compaſs of a jockey, a pickpocket, or a ſtreet-walker? Such a man in the nature of things can have no *pride* in his anceſtry:—on the contrary, he muſt wiſh to forget them, and ſtill more that the world may forget them. He could not bear to be reminded of men from whoſe conduct he has ſo widely departed, and muſt look at their portraits as at the *queer* reſemblance of *quizzes*, who know nothing of the world. Such a man, I repeat it, cannot have any *family pride*, although I allow him the pride of riches. It would be impoſſible to have true family pride without ſome attempt to emulate the virtues which raiſed and ennobled the family.

I am therefore one of thoſe who regret the decay of family pride, if, indeed, it be decayed. I grant that every heir to an illuſtrious name may fall ſhort of the genius and talents which brought that name into notice. One man has deſcended from a warrior. It is not neceſſary he ſhould be a warrior. Another has deſcended from a prime miniſter. It is not neceſſary he ſhould be a politician. A third has deſcended from a learned lawyer. It is not neceſſary he ſhould cheriſh the hope of being a lord chancellor. But there are other ways in which he may ſhow his regard for his anceſtors, and convey their names to poſterity with a reſpect that ſhall be irreſiſtible. He may be brave, hoſpitable, patriotic, virtuous and learned. He may be a contributor to the welfare of his country in many ways. He may, by his wealth, be a public bleſſing, and by his morals a public example. This is true *family pride*; the pride for which I contend: and I further ſay, that ſuch a man would have the preference over another of equal merit, but of no family. We may affect to philoſophize on this ſubject, or we may adopt the coarſe ideas of republicaniſm, but *cæteris paribus*, in all conteſts the man of family would have the preference.

Experience ought long ago to have taught us, however, that as the ſentiments of the maſs of mankind, have been artfully perverted into a contempt for family honours, the true way to bring them back to their proper channel, is to add the dignity of ſuperior virtue to that of birth. No man will be reſpected *merely* for his deſcent. If he brings nothing elſe into public view, this will be overlooked. It may ſecure flattery, but cannot command eſteem. And commerce has for many years ſent wealth in all directions among men of trade, and in ſuch ſtreams, that what wealth can do may be done by men incapable of ſaying who their father was, as well as by thoſe who exhibit a long pedigree. The man of family therefore muſt bring his family virtues into action, if he claims extraordinary reverence. The public, it is evident, expect it from him. The public always expect from certain ſituations, certain qualities. If they do not find them, they do not deſpiſe the man, but his ſituation. A profligate nobleman leads to railing againſt privileged orders. A profligate clergyman brings religion into contempt.

It is not juſt that ſuch effects ſhould flow from ſuch cauſes: but we know that this is the caſe: and it is our buſi-

neſs to cure popular prejudice, by every means that can inſpire more correct notions. We ſee what is the conſequence when aweful convulſions ſhake the conſtitution of a country. Rank and power eaſily give way, and even virtue is ſcarcely a ſhield, if it is found only among a few individuals: it may ſave them, but the order, the claſs they belong to periſhes by the miſconduct of the majority.

I hope I ſhall now be underſtood, when I profeſs myſelf an advocate for family pride, in its moſt true, moſt uſeful, and extenſive ſenſe—that pride, which, in conſideration of the honour of a family entruſted to him, will prevent a man from degrading it by low purſuits, which the meaneſt of mankind can follow with as much *eclat*; from aſſociating with companions who can only make experience dear, and repentance bitter; and from every deviation from the laws of public decency and virtue, on the due preſervation of which depends that eſteem which, amid danger and convulſion, is the only ſecurity from popular fury, and wild innovation.

I am, &c.

HERALDICUS.

ANECDOTES OF THE CITY OF PETERSBURGH.

[From Storch's 'Picture of Peterſburgh.']

NATURAL SITUATION AND CLIMATE.

ACCORDING to the calculation of the academician Krafft, St. Peterſburgh, on an average of ten years, has annually 97 bright days, 104 of rain, 72 of ſnow, and 93 unſettled. There are every year from twelve to ſixty ſeven ſtorms, which ſometimes, when they proceed from the weſt, occaſion inundations. From an experience of more than ſixty years, the ice of the Neva (the Thames of Peterſburgh) never breaks up before the 25th of March, and never later than the 27th of April: the earlieſt time of its freezing is the 20th of October, and the lateſt the 1ſt of December. Since the year 1741, the greateſt degree of heat has been 27, and the greateſt degree of cold 33, by Reaumur's thermometer.

We ſee from this ſurvey, how few days in the year can be enjoyed out of doors in theſe climates, and how limited are the pleaſures of our ſummers. The winter is our beſt ſeaſon, and poſſeſſes great advantages over his wet and foggy brethren in more ſouthern countries. An equal permanent cold ſtrengthens and recruits the body. The excellent ſledge roads render traveling commodious and agreeable: a winter journey in a moderate froſt on moonlight nights is an enjoyment only to be known in theſe climes. The Ruſſians, accuſtomed to hardſhips, ſeem to revive at the entrance of winter; and even foreigners are here more inſenſible to cold than in their native country. However, it muſt be confeſſed that none know better how to defend themſelves againſt its effects than the people here. On the approach of winter the double windows are put up in all the houſes, having the joints and interſtices caulked and neatly paſted with the border of the paper with which the room is hung. This precaution not only protects againſt cold and wind, but ſecures a free proſpect even in depth of winter, as the panes of glaſs are thus never incruſted with ice. The outer doors and frequently the floors under the carpets are covered with felt. Our ſtoves, which from their ſize and conſtruction, conſume indeed a great quantity of wood, produce a temperature in the moſt ſpacious apartments and public halls which annihilates all thoughts of winter.

On leaving the room we arm ourſelves ſtill more ſeriouſly againſt the ſeverity of the cold. Caps, furs, boots lined with flannel, and a muff, make up

the winter dreſs. It is diverting to ſee the coloſſal caſes in the antichamber, out of which in a few minutes the moſt elegant beaux are unfolded. The common Ruſſian cares only about warm wrappers for his legs and feet. Provided with a plain ſheep-ſkin *ſhube*, the drivers and itinerant tradeſmen frequent the ſtreets all day, with their bare necks and frozen beards. In a froſt of five and twenty degrees, it is common to ſee women ſtanding for hours together rincing their linen through holes in the ice of the canals.

The winter increaſes the neceſſaries of life, and they are multiplied by luxury. To theſe belong the winter clothing, fuel and candles. That people here run into great expences in the article of furs may be well imagined; and the faſhion varies ſo often that a man muſt be in more than moderate circumſtances to be able to follow it. The conſumption of wood is enormous. In the kitchens, bagnios and ſervants' rooms, which are heated like bagnios, there is an incredible waſte of this prime neceſſary of life in our climates. Upon a moderate computation here are annually conſumed upward of two hundred thouſand fathoms (a fathom is ſeven feet) amounting in ſpecie to about half a million of rubles.* This formidable conſumption, and the riſing price of wood, are highly deſerving of patriotic attention. The expence in tallow and wax candles is proportionately as large. Throughout the long winter we live in an almoſt everlaſting night, as our ſhorteſt day is only five hours and a half. In houſes conſtructed on a faſhionable ſtyle, the wax candles, as in England, are lighted long before dinner.

The ſpring is ſo ſhort, that it ſcarcely need be reckoned among the ſeaſons. March and April are generally pleaſant months on account of the number of bright days in them, but the air is ſtill keen, and the Neva frequently ſtill covered with ice. In May the ſcene ſuddenly changes: the winter dreſs entirely vaniſhes, but cold northerly winds keep off the balmy ſpring. We are now, by a ſudden tranſition, thrown at once into ſummer; the exiſtence whereof is likewiſe of ſhort duration; ſcarcely come on, ſcarcely enjoyed, ere it flits away

et mox bruma recurrit iners.

Short, however, as our ſummer is, it is not without its pleaſures: and perhaps it is here the more ſatisfactorily enjoyed for the very reaſon of its being ſo ſhort. On meeting the firſt ſmiles of the returning ſun, all hie to the adjacent villas, where the genial ſeaſon glides away too ſoon in hoſpitality and ſocial amuſements. Among the peculiar charms of the ſummer here, are to be reckoned the bright and generally warm nights. The faint rays of the ſcarcely ſetting ſun tinge the horizon with a ruddy hue, and beautify the ſurrounding objects: the noiſy buſtle of the ſtreets is departed, though not into a death-like ſilence, but converted into that idle occupation, which is even more voluptuous than repoſe: walking parties are met every where, frequently attended by muſic: on the ſmooth ſurface of the Neva, and on all the canals, boats are gliding, from which reſounds the ſimple melody of the popular ballads, as ſung by the watermen—beguiled by the novelty and delightfulneſs of the ſcene, and in the expectation of the coming night, by an agreeable ſurpriſe we find ourſelves cheated of our ſleep, when the firſt beams of the ſun are gilding the tops of the houſes. I have never yet known a ſingle foreigner, who was inſenſible to the firſt enjoyment of theſe ſummer nights.

But ah! to what ſcenes do theſe voluptuous moments lead! to the ſhort ſummer ſucceeds an autumn, which by its numberleſs unpleaſant concomitants effaces all remembrance of its few fine days. About this ſeaſon of the year Peterſburgh becomes one of the moſt hideous corners of the earth. The horizon for ſeveral weeks is overſpread with dark heavy clouds, impe-

* A ruble is 4s. 6d.

rious to the ſolar rays, reducing the already ſhortened days to a mere diſmal twilight: while the inceſſant rains, in ſpite of the newly conſtructed ſewers, render the ſtreets ſo dirty, that it is impoſſible for well-dreſſed perſons to walk there comfortably; and, to complete the picture of an autumnal evening, ſtorms and tempeſts frequently come on.

THE PEOPLE.

The Peterſburghers are on the whole (as far as ſo general a characteriſtic can be true) a large, compact, ſtrong, luſty caſt of people. The influence of climate on the form and organization, which, as accurate obſervers have already remarked, appears to be the caſe throughout the north, is here likewiſe viſible, without pretending to the gift of phyſiognomical divination. However beautiful the moulds may be in which the human figures here are caſt, they are nevertheleſs deficient in that ſharp determinate contour, which plaſtic nature ſeems to draw with ſo firm a hand beneath a milder and more genial ſky. Even the nobleſt ground-lines but faintly riſe from the luxuriant maſſes of fleſh, in the elaſtic tumidity whereof the finer ſketches and the gentle play of the muſcles are overpowered and loſt. If thoſe advantages could compenſate for theſe defects, they are compenſated: for finer fleſh, more beautiful ſkin, and more charming complexion, no where can perhaps be ſeen. The general taſte, which alſo here, as every where elſe, derives the laws of the beautiful from the models of elegant nature, ſeems to inſiſt on theſe properties as eſſential requiſites to beauty, and it is probable that the moſt perfect Grecian figure would not be admired in our circles, if unfortunately without ruddy cheeks, and would not abſolutely preſume, on account of certain advantages, to ſet up a rivalſhip with the Hebes of antiquity. This taſte is ſo fixed and ſo general, that in the Ruſſian language the ideas of *red*, *beautiful* and *paint*, have only one term by which they are expreſſed: and it is therefore highly pardonable if our ladies here, both of high and low condition, endeavour to heighten the charms of nature where ſhe has acted parſimoniouſly toward them in the diſtribution of this preſent. In all great cities that I know, paint is in uſe among the ladies of faſhion, but here it is carried further, as every peaſant's wife and daughter paints her cheeks as well as the counteſs, not for the ſake of being in the faſhion, but in order to be handſome. What ladies can lay on more paint than the wives of the Ruſſian merchants, as they waddle along under the burden of their pampered, ſleek, and ſhining collops of fat, bedizened with all the magnificence that pearls and lace can beſtow!

The men are not only on the whole more handſome than the women, but the former approaches nearer to the abſtract idea of the fineſt human ſhape. Among the officers of the guards, and more frequently among the country folks that came hither from the provinces, are ſeen many buſts that might without diſparagement be put in competition with the Antinous. In Germany, where the general judgement concerning perſonal beauty is not very different from that which here prevails, we may often be witneſs to the approbation which the ladies beſtow on the travelling Ruſſians in this reſpect. They commonly, however, ſoon loſe the beautiful outline here, ſince the men as well as the women, are, from various cauſes, much inclined to grow fat.

ENGLISH CONGREGATION.

The hiſtory of the Engliſh Congregation is briefly this. At a meeting held by the Britiſh factory at Moſco, April 30, in the year 1716, their treaſurer was directed to provide a proper perſon for the adminiſtration of the church offices. The rev. Thomas Conſett was accordingly invited over, and his ſalary fixed by a regulation made the 12th of Nov. 1717, at

Archangel, whither the factory had lately removed. In 1723, on the removal of the trade from Archangel to the newly erected city of St. Peterſburgh, their chaplain accompanied the merchants thither; and the factory now confirmed their former eſtabliſhment of an expreſs fund for defraying all expences requiſite for the purpoſes of religious worſhip. Some difference ariſing between the factory and their chaplain, he was diſmiſſed from their ſervice by a reſolution of the 10th of July. To ſupply the vacancy hence ariſing, their treaſurer was directed to write to Robert Nettleton, eſq. (governor of the Ruſſia company) to ſend out a ſucceſſor: few perſons however being willing to abandon their hopes of preferment at home, by an abſence in foreign parts, no eligible application ſeems to have been made, and the factory, weary of delay, ſome years afterward requeſted the court of aſſiſtants of the Ruſſia company in London to ſtep in to their relief, by nominating a clergyman duly qualified for their ſervice. The choice of the court fell on the rev. Mr. Philip Lerneult: who, being approved of, continued in the place for ſeveral years. A vacancy again happening in 1742, the factory appointed Mr. John Forſter. On this gentleman's reſignation, which happened a few years afterwards, the Ruſſia company ſent out Dr. Daniel Dumareſq. He, retiring to England in 1762, it occaſioned a freſh vacancy, which was ſupplied for a ſhort time by the voluntary offer of the rev. Mr. Erſkine, who happened to be on the ſpot in quality of private chaplain to the earl of Buckinghamſhire, his majeſty's miniſter at the court of Ruſſia. The chaplainſhip, with all its emoluments, being offered to him, in perpetuity, he was obliged to decline its acceptance as incompatible with his engagements with the earl. In 1763, Dr. John Glen King was appointed, who filled the office eleven years: when, in 1774, ſignifying his intentions to reſign, the factory, deſirous of advancing the rev. Mr. William Tooke, at that time reſident in Cronſtadt, in the capacity of miniſter of the Engliſh church in that iſland, to the church at St. Peterſburgh, communicated this deſire to the court of aſſiſtants of the Ruſſia company, who unanimouſly concurred in the appointment. He held the office for about eighten years, and reſigned in 1792. The Ruſſia company now elected the rev. Mr. Percival, to whom all the emoluments enjoyed by his predeceſſor were continued. In the year 1796, he being ordered a change of climate by his phyſicians, on account of his bad ſtate of health, the factory intimated their deſire to one of their body to requeſt the rev. Mr. Tooke, their former chaplain, to provide them a ſubſtitute. The rev. Mr. London King Pitt was, in purſuance of this application, ſent over by Mr. Tooke, and continued to officiate till Mr. Percival's return. The diſorder of the latter gentleman unfortunately ſoon after terminating in his death, the factory ſo highly approved of his ſubſtitute, that they appointed him to the office, which he continues to fill.

EXAMPLES OF THE LENITY OF THE GOVERNMENT, AND HOSPITALITY TO STRANGERS.

There have not been wanting, even among thoſe who were thrown by good fortune into the country, ſuch as have ſhown themſelves extremely ungrateful for the benefits they were admitted to ſhare. During the laſt Swediſh war, ſome examples of this lamentable truth appeared. Among the numerous Swedes that were ſettled in this town, in a quiet habitation, and having a comfortable proviſion, either as tradeſmen or in the ſervice of government, ſome were ſeduced by a miſtaken patriotiſm, by a ſpirit of intrigue, or by the hopes of making their fortunes, engaged in ſcandalous practices againſt the country that gave them bread, raiſed them to conſequence, and protected them, at the

breaking out, and during the whole continuance of a war profecuted with ſo much bitterneſs and rancour, in the full and undiſturbed enjoyment of the civil advantages they had obtained. The vigilance, the ſpeedy detection, and above all, the moderation and magnanimity with which the government proceeded againſt theſe traitors, afford too ſtriking and memorable a refutation of foreign prejudices and the partial judgement of ſome writers, to permit me to grudge a few lines to an unvarniſhed and true relation of an intereſting incident of this kind.

The ſuddenneſs of the departure of the Swediſh ambaſſador at the breaking out of the war, obliged him to leave behind him in ſafe cuſtody a part of his papers. A bold and reſolute man, who had been valet de-chambre to the ſecretary of legation, undertook, ſome time afterwards, the dangerous commiſſion, not only of conveying theſe papers to Sweden, but alſo of ſending intelligence of certain matters which in all countries are conſidered as ſecrets of ſtate, and ſhould be ſo, in many reſpects, during a time of war. Being ſufficiently furniſhed with money and every other requiſite for ſuch an enterprize, he appeared at Peterſburgh in the borrowed character of a merchant dealing in corn, and had the luck, not only to attain a part of his ends, but likewiſe to get as far as Riga with the papers and diſpatches which were the chief purpoſe of his errand. Here, on the borders of the empire, the vigilance of the Peterſburgh police overtook him: he was taken into cuſtody, brought back to town, and put under a guard in the houſe of the general procureuer. His trial was ſhort, as the proofs of his guilt were ſo clear as to admit of no prevarication: he therefore thought it moſt adviſeable, under theſe circumſtances, to make a voluntary confeſſion of the fact. Upon this his ſentence was pronounced in the following words: 'You have committed a crime for which in any other country you would be puniſhed with death: this puniſhment the empreſs graciouſly condeſcends to remit, in conſideration of the frank confeſſion you have made: and as a further mark of her grace, mitigates whatever other heavy doom you deſerve, to a removal to a diſtant frontier, where you are to remain till the end of the war, at which time you are at liberty to quit the country.' The culprit was ſtruck dumb with amazement, and had not time to recover from his agreeable tranſport, when he was preſented with a bank note of a hundred rubles, and told it was ſent him by a very exalted benefactor, deſirous of alleviating his affliction by that trifling donation. The place of his baniſhment lay in the extremity of Siberia. Here he was ordered to be paid daily a ſtated ſum for his ſupport; which, by ſome accident, never came to his hands: however, among the inhabitants of theſe parts he met with ſome kind-hearted perſons, who felt for his diſtreſs, and ſupplied him with neceſſaries. No ſooner was the treaty of peace concluded, than with the account of it came an order to ſet him at liberty. He returned to St. Peterſburgh, made his appearance in the court of juſtice, received the whole amount of his daily allowance paid up to the very day of his liberation, ſet up in trade on this little capital, married a young woman of Peterſburgh, and was lately living there, contented and happy, a memorable inſtance of the political toleration of Catharine II.

HONESTY OF TRADESMEN.

Great as the ſecurity of Peterſburgh is in regard to acts of open violence, yet it is neceſſary for every one to be upon his guard againſt artful impoſtures and deep laid ſtratagems. The frequent inſtances of this kind make the Ruſſian wary, and therefore they are not ſo eaſily made the dupes of their countrymen: but ſo much the more do they make up for this at the expence of ſtrangers and foreigners,

particularly when they are not acquainted with the language of the country. The ſhopkeepers and merchants commonly aſk three times, and frequently even five times as much as the commodity is worth: the unknowing offer the half, and think they have made a good bargain, till they find, when too late, that they have been miſerably cheated. To give damaged goods a fair appearance, to defraud in meaſure and weight in an imperceptible manner, to ſlip bad goods among the better that have been bought and ordered home; all theſe, and a multitude of other tricks, no dealers in the world underſtand better than the Ruſſian. As the Ruſſians in general are ſurpriſingly cunning and of quick parts, they are eminently addicted to this ſpecies of induſtry, and the pickpockets of Peterſburgh and Moſco may ſafely lay wagers on their dexterity with thoſe of London and Paris.

Some time ſince the following affair happened at Moſco, which excited great curioſity both there and at the reſidence; and, on account of its originality, deſerves to be noticed while we are on this ſubject. A wealthy nobleman, well known as a fancier of precious ſtones, fell accidentally in company with a perſon unknown to him, who wore on his finger a ring of great beauty and value. After a long diſcourſe on its real worth, the nobleman offered him a conſiderable price for it; which the ſtranger at firſt refuſed, on the reaſonable ground that he had no deſire to part with it. At length, however, to evade the repeated importunities of the nobleman, he declared that he could not ſell it, becauſe—the ſtones were *not genuine*. This declaration filled all the company, among whom were connoiſſeurs, with amazement. The nobleman, in order to be ſure of the matter, deſired to have the ring for a few days againſt ſufficient ſecurity; received it, and ran from one jeweller to another, who all unanimouſly pronounced the ſtones to be genuine, and of great value. With this aſſurance, and the hope of a good bargain, he brought back the ring to its owner, who, on receiving it, put it, with great indifference, into his waiſtcoat pocket. The negociation now began afreſh: the ſtranger perſiſted in his reſolution, till at length the nobleman offered a ſum which was pretty near the true value of it. 'This ring,' returned the ſtranger, 'is a token of friendſhip: but I am not rich enough to reject ſo large a ſum as you offer for it, yet this high offer is the very reaſon of my not complying. How can you, if you are thoroughly conſcious of what you are doing, offer ſo much money for a ring, which the owner himſelf confeſſes to be made up of falſe ſtones?'—'If your determination depends only on that,' replied the buyer, 'here, take at once the ſum,' (laying it in bank notes on the table) 'and I call the gentlemen here to witneſs, that I voluntarily, and after due conſideration, pay it.' The ſeller took the money, and gave the nobleman the ring, repeating the declarion, that the ſtones were falſe, and that it was ſtill time to make the bargain void. The latter obſtinately refuſed to hearken to his advice, haſtened joyfully home, and found—what the reader has already gueſſed—that the ſtranger had ſaid what was too true. Inſtead of the genuine ring, he had a falſe one made exactly like the other. The affair was brought into a court of juſtice; but as the ſeller proved, that during the whole buſineſs there was no queſtion at all about genuine ſtones; that the purchaſer expreſsly treated only for a falſe ring, and he on the other hand ſold him only a falſe ring: the judge was accordingly obliged to pronounce in favour of the latter.

The arts of cheating in the articles of proviſions are no where better underſtood than here. Ordinary deceptions of this nature happen in every place: but when one looks at a fowl, which to all appearance is finely fattened, and finds it only filled with

wind; or aſparagus, deprived of their eatable part, pointed again and coloured with a tempting verdure; no man will call theſe ordinary tricks.

A lady, who had not been long come out of Germany, and had heard much from her acquaintance at Peterſburgh of the many artifices of this nature practiſed in that city, took the reſolution to uſe the utmoſt caution in all her dealings, in order to refute the common opinion, that every ſtranger muſt buy his wiſdom. Several days paſſed on: one morning however a vender of ſmall articles about the ſtreets entered her apartment, and offered her a pound of tea, the laſt remains of what he had to ſell. She weighed the parcel and found it juſt; ſhe made a trial; the tea was unadulterated, and well flavoured: ſhe ſhook it all out into a baſon; no deceit was diſcoverable. She inquired the price, and offered a third part of what he aſked: the vender was naturally not ſatisfied with this offer; turned his tea back again into the box, wrapped a cloth about it, and crammed it into his boſom. At length the bargain was ſtruck, and the commodity delivered: however, prudence does no harm; the lady opened the box, and ſaw the tea ſhe had bought. She ſhut it up, to the great joy of the ſeller, who in the mean time had aſked her ſmiling, why ſhe was ſo extremly cautious, and why ſhe had ſo very bad an opinion of his honeſty. The money was paid; the man went his way; and ſome days after the box was found full of ſand and grains, excepting the ſurface, which was really good tea.

THE GLEANER.

NUMBER XXXVII.

O Luxury! thou curſt by heaven's decree,
How ill exchang'd are things like theſe for thee!
How do thy potions with inſidious joy,
Diffuſe their pleaſures only to deſtroy!
Kingdoms by thee, to ſickly greatneſs grown,
Boaſt of a florid vigour not their own.
At every draught more large and large they grow,
A bloated maſs of rank unwieldy woe;
Till, ſapp'd their ſtrength, and every part unſound,
Down, down they ſink, and ſpread a ruin round.

GOLDSMITH.

SO ſings the poets, and ſo have poets ſung both in ancient and modern times, but without making many converts to their opinions. There are few things about which more differences exiſt, than luxury. Every man defines it for his neighbour, but few have correct notions of it for themſelves. It is a ſomething againſt which it is faſhionable to rail, but the raillery hurts no one, becauſe no one thinks it applies to himſelf. Preachers have exhauſted their eloquence on the ſame ſubject, and have failed for the ſame reaſon. Every man has a notion that his own expences are reaſonable, and that what ſome may call luxuries are to him neceſſaries. The preacher deals in generals; he does not define his *luxury*; he does not ſpecify particulars, and thus he ſhoots over the heads of his hearers.

Few have been able to give correct explanations on this ſubject, or ſay what luxury is. They tell us that no man ſhould purchaſe more than he can afford, and that all beyond is luxury and extravagance. True—but many men *can* afford to purchaſe luxuries, and with regard to people in general,

who can determine what they can afford, ſince themſelves are not agreed upon it, and very ſeldom take the trouble to aſk, and ſtill ſeldomer to anſwer the queſtion?

Dr. Johnſon in his familiar converſation, always oppoſed the clamour againſt luxury. We are indebted to Mr. Boſwell for ſome curious arguments on this ſubject, which ſome of my readers will not be ſorry to ſee. On one occaſion, when Dr. Goldſmith, from whoſe admirable poem I have taken my motto, expatiated on the common topic, that the race of our people was degenerated, and that this was owing to luxury, Dr. Johnſon ſaid, 'Sir, in the firſt place, I doubt the fact. I believe there are as many tall men in England now, as ever there were. But, ſecondly, ſuppoſing the ſtature of our people to be diminiſhed, that is not owing to luxury: for, ſir, conſider to how very ſmall a proportion of our people luxury can reach. Our ſoldiery, ſurely, are not luxurious, who live on ſixpence a day; and the ſame remark will apply to almoſt all the other claſſes. Luxury, ſo far as it reaches the poor, will do good to the race of people; it will ſtrengthen and multiply them. Sir, no nation was ever hurt by luxury; for, as I ſaid before, it can reach but to a very few. I admit, that the great increaſe of commerce and manufactures hurts the military ſpirit of a people; becauſe it produces a competition for ſomething elſe than martial honours—a competition for riches. It alſo hurts the bodies of the people; for you will obſerve, there is no man who works at any particular trade, but you may know him from his appearance to do ſo. One part or other of his body being more uſed than the reſt, he is in ſome degree deformed: but, ſir, that is not luxury.' *Goldſmith.* 'Come, you are juſt going to the ſame place by another road.' *Johnſon.* 'Nay, ſir, I ſay that is not *luxury*. Let us take a walk from Charing-croſs to Whitechapel, through, I ſuppoſe, the greateſt ſeries of ſhops in the world, what is there in any of thoſe ſhops (if you except gin ſhops) that can do any human being any harm?' *Goldſmith.* 'Well, ſir, I'll accept your challenge. The very next ſhop to Northumberland houſe is a pickle-ſhop.' *Johnſon.* 'Well, ſir; do we not know that a maid, can in one afternoon, make pickles ſufficient to ſerve a whole family for a year? Nay, that five pickle-ſhops can ſerve all the kingdom? Beſides, ſir, there is no harm done to any body by the making of pickles, or the eating of pickles.'

The principal part of this argument certainly is, that the poor have not luxuries, and conſequently the greater part of a nation cannot be affected in their perſons by it. If there be a degeneracy in the ſize of men, the cauſe muſt be looked for in their diet, and it is highly probable, that it will not be found that the diet of the lower claſſes is *luxurious*. On the contrary, it will be far more natural to aſcribe degeneracy in ſize or ſtrength to poverty of diet, or what is generally termed *poor living*, and all living is poor, and incompatible with bodily vigour, where there is a want of animal food.

I find another paſſage, which places the queſtion in a more clear point of view. It is as follows:

'Many things,' ſays this attentive obſerver of human life, 'which are falſe, are tranſmitted from book to book, and gain credit in the world. One of theſe is the cry againſt the evil of luxury. Now the truth is, that luxury produces much good. Take the luxury of buildings in London. Does it not produce real advantages in the conveniency and elegance of accommodation, and all this from the exertion of induſtry? People will tell you, with a melancholy face, how many builders are in gaol. It is plain they are in gaol, not for building, for rents are not fallen.—A man gives half a guinea for a diſh of green peas. How much gardening does this oc-

caſion? How many labourers muſt the competition to have ſuch things early in the market, keep in employment? You will hear it ſaid, very gravely, 'Why was not the half-guinea, thus ſpent in luxury, given to the poor? To how many might it have afforded a good meal!' Alas! has it not gone to the *induſtrious* poor, whom it is better to ſupport, than the *idle* poor? You are much ſurer that you are doing good when you *pay* money to thoſe who work, as the recompence of their labour, than when you *give* money merely in charity.'

This is certainly concluſive as to the *uſes* of luxury. The expenſive entertainments of the luxurious are all provided by the labour and induſtry of hundreds, who gain their livelihood entirely by furniſhing the tables of the rich. The increaſe, for example, of gardeners near London, is immenſe, and ſurely no man will regret the increaſe of hands in an employment ſo much calculated to promote health, and to produce a healthy offſpring. In theſe reſpects it will be difficult to mention another employment of equal effect.

I ſhall inſtance only one more opinion. In a company, where the late general Oglethorpe was declaiming againſt luxury, the following converſation took place. *Johnſon.* 'Depend upon it, ſir, every ſtate of ſociety is as luxurious as it can be. Men always take the beſt they can get.' *Oglethorpe.* 'But the beſt depends much on ourſelves; and if we can be as well ſatiſfied with plain things, we are in the wrong to accuſtom our palates to what is high ſeaſoned and expenſive. What ſays Addiſon in his Cato, ſpeaking of the Numidian:

Coarſe are his meals, the fortune of the chace,
Amid the running ſtream he ſlakes his thirſt,
Toils all the day, and at the approach of night,
On the firſt friendly bank he throws him down,
Or reſts his head upon a rock till morn;
And if the following day he chance to find
A new repaſt, or an untaſted ſpring,
Bleſſes his ſtars! and thinks it luxury!

'Let us have *that* kind of luxury, ſir, if you will.' *Johnſon.* 'But hold, ſir; to be merely ſatisfied is not enough. It is in refinement and elegance that the civilized man differs from the ſavage. A great part of our induſtry, and all our ingenuity, is exerciſed in procuring pleaſure; and, ſir, a hungry man has not the ſame pleaſure in eating a plain dinner, that a hungry man has in eating a luxurious dinner. You ſee I put the caſe fairly. A hungry man may have as much, nay, more pleaſure in eating a plain dinner, than a man grown faſtidious has in eating a luxurious dinner. But I ſuppoſe the man who decides between the two dinners, to be equally a hungry man.'——

Yet ſtill the common cry will recur; how many people there are ruined by luxury! We have ſeen already, that by the conſtitution of ſociety in this country, the proportion of thoſe who can enjoy luxuries, is very ſmall when compared with the great maſs of the people. And if we enquire into the caſes of thoſe who are ruined by luxury, we ſhall find that they were ruined by the purchaſe of luxuries, which they could not afford to pay for; but they might, in the ſame circumſtances, have been equally ruined by the purchaſe of hemp, tallow, or iron, or any commodity which they could not afford. If men are ſaid to be ruined by folly and improvidence, it will be found true; but by mere luxury, the luxury of furniture, of the table, or of equipage, very few can be ruined, unleſs they have ſet up an eſtabliſhment far beyond their real or probable means, and that, I think, ought not to be called luxury, but ſwindling.

The following conſiderations, however, will ſerve to rectify our notions on this ſubject, which is certainly of the firſt importance to us as living in a commercial and laborious country.

The argument againſt many of the conveniences of life, drawn from the

mere conſideration of their not being neceſſary, was equally proper in the mouth of the ſavage, who diſſuaded from the *firſt* applications of induſtry, as it is in that of the moraliſt, who inſiſts on the vanity of the *laſt*. 'Our anceſtors,' he might ſay, 'found their dwelling under this rock; they gathered their food in the foreſt; they allayed their thirſt from the fountain; and they were clothed in the ſpoils of the beaſt they had ſlain. Why ſhould we indulge a falſe delicacy, or require from the earth fruits, which ſhe is not accuſtomed to yield? The bow of our fathers is already too ſtrong for our arms; and the wild beaſt begins to lord it in the woods *.'

Thus the moraliſt may have found, in the proceedings of every age, thoſe topics of blame, from which he is ſo much diſpoſed to arraign the manners of his own; and our embarraſſment on the ſubject is, perhaps, but a part of that general perplexity, which we undergo, in trying to define moral characters by external circumſtances, which may, or may not, be attended with faults in the mind or heart. One man finds a vice in the wearing of linen; another does not, unleſs the fabrick be fine; and if, in the mean time, it be true, that a perſon may be dreſſed in manufacture, either coarſe or fine; that he may ſleep in the fields, or lodge in a palace; tread upon carpet, or plant his foot on the ground; while the mind either retains, or has loſt, its penetration, and its vigour, and the heart its affection to mankind, it is vain, under any ſuch circumſtance, to ſeek for the diſtinctions of virtue and vice, or to tax the poliſhed citizen with weakneſs for any part of his equipage, or for his wearing a fur, perhaps, in which ſome ſavage was dreſſed before him. Vanity is not diſtinguiſhed by any ſpecies of dreſs. It is betrayed by the Indian in the fantaſtic aſſortment of his plumes, his ſhells, his party coloured furs, and in the time he beſtows at the glaſs and the toilet. Its projects in the woods and in the towns are the ſame: in the one, it ſeeks, with the viſage bedaubed, and with teeth artificially ſtained, for that admiration, which it courts in the other with a gilded equipage, and liveries of ſtate.

Poliſhed nations, in their progreſs, often come to ſurpaſs the rude in moderation, and ſeverity of manners. 'The Greeks,' ſays Thucydides, 'not long ago, like barbarians, wore golden ſpankles in the hair, and went armed in times of peace.' Simplicity of dreſs in this people, became a mark of politeneſs; and the mere materials with which the body is nouriſhed or clothed, are probably of little conſequence to any people. We muſt look for the characters of men in the qualities of the mind, not in the ſpecies of their food, or in the mode of their apparel. What are now the ornaments of the grave and ſevere; what is owned to be a real conveniency, were once the fopperies of youth, or were deviſed to pleaſe the effeminate. The new faſhion, indeed, is often the mark of the coxcomb; but we frequently change our faſhions, without increaſing the meaſures of our vanity or folly.

Are the apprehenſions of the ſevere, therefore, in every age, equally groundleſs and unreaſonable? Are we never to dread any error in the article of a refinement beſtowed on the means of ſubſiſtence, or the conveniencies of life? The fact is, that men are perpetually expoſed to the commiſſion of error in this article, not merely where they are accuſtomed to high meaſures of accommodation, or to any particular ſpecies of food, but wherever the objects, in general, may come to be preferred to friends, to a country, or to mankind; they actually commit ſuch error wherever they admire paultry diſtinctions or frivolous advantages; wherever they ſhrink from ſmall inconveniencies, and are incapable of diſcharging their duty with vigour. The uſe of morality on this ſubject, is not to limit

* Ferguſon's Eſſay on the Hiſtory of Civil Society.

men to any particular ſpecies of lodging, diet, or clothes; but to prevent their conſidering theſe conveniencies as the principal objects of human life.

Luxury, therefore, conſidered as a predilection in favour of the objects of vanity, and the coſtly materials of pleaſure, is ruinous to the human character; conſidered as the mere uſe of accommodations and conveniencies which the age has procured, rather depends on the progreſs which the mechanical arts have made, and on the degree in which the fortunes of men are unequally parcelled, than on the diſpoſitions of particular men either to vice or to virtue.

Different meaſures of luxury are, however, variouſly ſuited to different conſtitutions of government. The advancement of arts ſuppoſes an unequal diſtribution of fortune; and the means of diſtinction they bring, ſerve to render the ſeparation of ranks more ſenſible. Luxury is, upon this account, apart from all its moral effects, adverſe to the form of democratical government; and in any ſtate of ſociety, can be ſafely admitted in that degree only in which the members of the community are ſuppoſed of unequal rank, and conſtitute public order by means of a regular ſubordination. High degrees of it appear ſalutary, and even neceſſary, in monarchical and mixed governments; where, beſide the encouragement to arts and commerce, it ſerves to give luſtre to thoſe hereditary or conſtitutional dignities, which have a place of importance in the political ſyſtem.

Theſe opinions, I preſume, will enable my readers to form more correct notions than is uſually done upon this ſubject, and eſpecially to thoſe diſtinguiſhed between *luxury* and *vice*, which are often confounded; and it is evident that the evils of luxury may be avoided if, while every man takes as much luxury as he can, he alſo contrive to take no more than will ſuit his circumſtances and ſituation in life.

Of the NATURE, EXTENT, *and* NATIONAL ADVANTAGES *of the* PUBLIC CREDIT *and* FUNDING SYSTEM *of* GREAT BRITAIN.

[From Mortimer's Lectures on Commerce, Politics, and Finances.]

PUBLIC credit, as it reſpects money tranſactions, and particularly the ſyſtem of finances, or the adminiſtration of the public revenue, means no more than that mutual confidence between government and the people, which enables the former to obtain, by diſpoſing the latter to contribute very large portions of their perſonal eſtates, to ſupply the exigencies of the ſtate, on great emergencies; upon the ſtrength of obligations contracted, and promiſed punctually to be performed in future time. This has been carried to a greater height in England of late years, than ever was imagined in any other country, or conceived to be poſſible in this. In ſhort, it has aſtoniſhed and perplexed ſome of the powers of Europe, and has been the terror of others.

No age, no hiſtory of any country, ancient or modern, has been able to produce ſuch a glorious example of inviolate conſtitutional faith and honour on the part of the borrowers; or of ſuch cheerful and unlimited confidence on the part of the lenders.

The means by which public credit has been eſtabliſhed in England, muſt be ſought for in the inſtitution of national banks in other countries, and of the Bank of England.

As ſoon as bills of exchange, notes of hand, bonds, and other ſecurities for money, modernly ſtyled *paper money*, became the medium of mutual exchanges between nation and nation, in their commercial intercourſes; and between the ſubjects of any particular nation internally, a leſs quanity of gold and ſilver coins was ſufficient for

the purpoſes of general circulation; and the largeſt quantities of the precious metals, inſtead of remaining in private hands, became depoſited in banks; and theſe were called banks of depoſit; the money of the ſtate, and of individuals, being lodged therein, to be refunded on demand. A further improvement was afterward made by converting theſe banks of *depoſit* into banks of *circulation*. The two principal banks of Europe of this kind, are the bank of Amſterdam, and the bank of England.

The bank of Amſterdam was founded early in the ſeventeenth century; and by an ordinance publiſhed ſoon after its eſtabliſhment, the payments of bills of exchange, and for merchandize purchaſed in wholeſale quantities, *muſt* be made ſolely in aſſignments upon the bank. But for the convenience of ſtrangers and of retailers, there are a ſet of caſhiers out of the bank, always ready to give caſh for bank aſſignments, which furniſhes a ſufficient circulation of money for common uſe; and as the value of bank money is always above that of the current ſpecie, the difference in the exchange of a bank aſſignment for currency, is called the *Agio*, and it varies from three to five per cent.

This banks does not avail itſelf of the advantage of iſſuing notes on demand for caſh.

King William III, eſtabliſhed the bank of England upon ſome of the outlines of that of Amſterdam; but with the following material improvement. Our bank iſſues notes on demand to an incredible amount, yet no one is obliged to receive them in payment; they are not even a legal tender in lieu of money for a debt; the matter is left free and optionable, agreeable to the genius of the Britiſh conſtitution: but the great advantages derived to government from the inſtitution of this bank are the eſtabliſhment of public credit, on the baſis of its ſyſtem of circulating notes; and the internal connection between the adminiſtration of the finances of the ſtate, and the bank. This has enabled government, on great emergencies, to raiſe ſuch large ſums for the public ſervice, as could not have been levied, without oppreſſive aſſeſſments, but by the aid of ſuch a bank. The original fund for eſtabliſhing the bank as a *corporation*, is called *bank ſtock*; it was augmented from time to time, on the renewal of their charters, by the addition of new proprietors, ſubſcribers to the new capitals; and both the original ſum and the additional ſums have been lent to government at low intereſt, on extraordinary occaſions, generally in time of war, as a conſideration for the renewals of their charters for the term of twenty-one years. And theſe loans from the bank form a principal article of the national debt.

The next public benefit derived from the cloſe connection of government with the bank is, that of borrowing very large ſums of money of the ſubjects, and of foreigners, to ſupply the extra demands of the ſtate in times of war, by conſtituting *annuities determinate* and *perpetual*, as a conſideration for the capital ſums ſo borrowed; and theſe were made transferable at the bank, whereby a new ſpecies of monied property, unknown before, was created; and a market opened for buying and ſelling theſe annuities, which in many reſpects anſwers the purpoſe of refunding, or paying off the capitals by government.

The brokers employed to transfer theſe funds from one perſon to another, are called *ſtock-brokers*; and their commiſſion for buying or ſelling is one-eighth of a pound on every 100l, exactly the ſame as is taken by the agents of the bank of Amſterdam, for changing bank aſſignments into current money; and this is the true origin of the funding ſyſtem, and of the generation of ſtock-brokers.

But the misfortune attending the funding ſyſtem at the revolution was, a want of confidence in the new go-

vernment; and the fear of a counter-revolution reſtoring king James; ſo that king William, inſtead of being able to avail himſelf of the great plenty of money then in the nation, was obliged to offer very high intereſt, and to raiſe the ſupplies on the moſt diſadvantageous terms; which opened the door to very heavy exciſes, to pay the intereſt of *long annuities*.

Had king William's government been fixed, and freed from all apprehenſions of rebellions or revolt, he might have borrowed money at *two per cent.* inſtead of *ſix*, which he was obliged to give on *redeemable annuities*, and *fourteen* on *long annuities*.

By *redeemable* annuities, are meant ſuch as parliament reſerves a power to redeem, or pay off, by reimburſements of the capitals, or principal ſums borrowed; in the mean time, an annual intereſt, or annuity of three, four, or five per cent. muſt be paid half yearly, according to the terms of the loan.

Long Annuities mean certain annual rates of intereſt granted for 90 or 100 years, on condition of ſinking the capital, which is paid, not lent, to purchaſe ſuch annuities. King William borrowed large ſums on this plan; and as the annual annuity was very high, viz. ten, twelve and fourteen per cent. this occaſioned very burthenſome taxes on his ſubjects. As theſe annuities expired, the taxes appropriated for the payment of them, inſtead of being aboliſhed, have been continued, which increaſed the revenue, during Mr. Pitt's adminiſtration of the finances; and more will expire every year.

Short annuities are of a more modern date; and have been granted as *douceurs*, at ſundry times, by late miniſters of the finances, to make up the *par* of ſums borrowed on redeemable annuities, when their value was conſiderably under *par*. They are called ſhort annuities, being granted for a ſhort term of years, in compariſon with long annuities, viz. to expire, in ten, twenty, or at moſt thirty years.

Life annuities are granted either for one, or more lives; and if to a number of perſons, with benefit of ſurvivorſhip to the longeſt liver, they are called *tontines*.

No capital ſums have been borrowed of late years by government on life annuities; becauſe the ſtate of the finances would not admit of paying high intereſt on ſuch annuities, in conſideration of ſinking the capital.

But ſmall annuities for life have been annexed, in the ſame manner as ſhort annuities, to redeemable annuities, to make up the *par* of money intereſt at low intereſt.

Long, and *ſhort*, and *life* annuities, are called, in the ſtatement of the *national debt*, irredeemable annuities, becauſe they cannot be redeemed; but the payment of them muſt continue till the expiration of the term of years for which they were originally granted.

The *unfunded* debt of the nation conſiſts, for ſome years after every war, of *navy*, *victualling*, and *ordnance* bills; theſe are iſſued in times of war, to perſons contracting to ſupply the navy with timber, proviſions, &c. and the ordnance offices with ſtores, ammunition, tranſport ſhips, &c. Inſtead of paying in money, the reſpective offices, after examining and paſſing the accounts of the contractors, give them bills for the amount, ſigned by the commiſſioners, and payable by the treaſury, ſix months after date; if they are not then diſcharged, they bear an intereſt of four or five per cent. until paid: and if not paid off by any particular aid of parliament, they are uſually funded with the conſent of the proprietors, being converted into redeemable annuities, at the ſame rate of intereſt.

The aforeſaid bills are all negociable at the ſtock exchange, and at bankers' ſhops, by endorſement, like bills of exchange, or notes of hand payable to order.

In times of war, beſide the extra aids, called the *ſupply* for the ſervice of the current year, provided for by *ways and means* ſtated in parliament,

and vulgarly called, the *miniſter's budget*; a vote of credit is often given to the king, to enable his miniſters to raiſe money, for any extraordinary emergency, during the receſs of parliament. The chancellor of the exchequer raiſes the money by exchequer bills, which bear five per cent. intereſt, and are to be paid off from the firſt ſupplies, granted in the following ſeſſion of parliament, conſequently, they cannot be current above one year; but if the miniſter finds it inconvenient to diſburſe the ſums neceſſary to pay them off, he creates and iſſues new bills to the ſame amount, by freſh grants of parliament; and thus there are generally, from year to year, two or three millions of exchequer bills outſtanding, which muſt be added to the unfunded debt.

On STOCK-JOBBING, *conſidered as a* CONSEQUENCE *of* PUBLIC CREDIT, *and of the* FUNDING SYSTEM.

[From the SAME.]

THIS is an evil of the firſt magnitude; yet, it has been found hitherto impracticable to apply an adequate remedy, without injuring the public credit of the funds, by checking the operations of the open market for them at the ſtock exchange. It is an abuſe ſpringing out of the extenſive credit of the nation. For great numbers of foreigners are not only proprietors of the old funds, but likewiſe either ſubſcribers to, or purchaſers of conſiderable ſums in every new loan; ſo that they become creditors deeply intereſted in the national debt; and the chief corps of foreigners concerned in them are the Dutch, both as individuals, and in communities.

The free liberty granted to all foreigners, to buy into, or to ſell out of our public funds at pleaſure, gave birth to time-bargains; that is to ſay, to contracts made to transfer, or to accept any portion of property in them, at a fixed, future period (uſually three months after the date of the bargain) at the current price of the day, when it was made.

This make the Engliſh funds bear a certain price every day, on the Exchange at Amſterdam, as well as at London; and the prices, in time of war, being governed by the ſtate of public affairs, the agents for the Dutch proprietors in the old funds, or for the purchaſers into the new, receive their orders to act according to circumſtances. All their commiſſions of courſe are confidential and ſecret. Suppoſe the Engliſh have gained a conſiderable advantage over their enemies: this raiſes the price of the funds, as ſoon as the good news are confirmed by authority. If the event happens on the continent, the Dutchman gets intelligence of it, before it is generally known in England; and he writes to his agent to ſell out 10,000l, three per cent. conſolidated annuities, at the price to which he conjectures they will riſe, when the news becomes public, to be transferred three months after the day, on which the bargain is made.

The agent watches the beſt opportunity, and employs a broker to ſell, who will readily find in the open market, another broker, who will agree to buy—the contract is then concluded by each broker entering it in his book. Thus, February 1, A. ſells to B. 10,000l, 3 per cent. at 69 per cent. B. bought of A. 10,000l, 3 per cent. at 69 per cent. for May. Here the matter reſts till May, when the quarterly reſcounters, which means the ſettling of accounts, takes place.

We will now ſuppoſe ſome very bad news, or the miniſtry wanting to borrow a large ſum on a new loan, has happened, between February and May; either of thoſe circumſtances would cauſe the price of the old funds to fall; let us ſay 3 per cent. viz. to

66. In that caſe, A. who agrees to ſell at 69, might replace his ſtock at 66, and put 30l in his pocket; and B. if he did not chooſe to take the ſtock he had agreed to buy, would loſe 30l, in ſettling the account. But if he reſolved to take it, and to keep it till a future riſe, A. would find ſome other perſon of whom he would purchaſe, to deliver it, and from him receive the difference between 66 and 69. The whole of this tranſaction is perfectly fair and honeſt, 'for every man has a right to make the moſt he can of his property.' And if I ſell my horſe for thirty guineas one day, and repenting of having parted with him, go to the new owner, and get him to agree to let me have him again at thirty-three guineas; ſo that I pay the difference, it is of no conſequence, whether, in the interval, my groom has, or has not delivered him. Or if I buy a horſe at thirty guineas, and before it is delivered to me, another perſon, who has ſeen it offers to give me thirty-three, if I chooſe to put three guineas in my pocket, I have only to deſire the ſeller to deliver it to my order, it being of no conſequence to him, whether the firſt or ſecond purchaſer gets poſſeſſion of the horſe. Juſt ſo is it, with reſpect to time bargains in the funds, and the *reſcounter* ſettlings; for it very ſeldom happens that A. or B. the firſt contractors, either deliver or take, that is to ſay, either *transfer* or *accept* in the books at the bank, the 10,000l, entered as bought or ſold in their own books—all they have to do, is to ſettle their accounts, by paying or receiving the difference in the prices.

But the miſchief is, that under the maſk of ſecrecy, ſimilar tranſactions may take place to the amount of millions, and yet the parties concerned may not be owners of one ſhilling of property, either in the old funds, nor on any new loan; and this is that *gambling* at the ſtock exchange, which ruins numbers of people every year, and is productive of the worſt conſequences to the public.

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Theſe tranſactions are declared to be illegal by an act of parliament, 'to prevent the iniquitous practice of ſtock jobbing;' and no debt accruing from ſtock-jobbing accounts is recoverable at law.

But this advantage does not prevent daily gambling to an incredible amount in all the funds; and as the greateſt variations, in a courſe of years, have happened in *Eaſt India ſtock*, owing to the frequent revolutions in the company's affairs at home and abroad; the greateſt fortunes have been won and loſt by jobbing in that ſtock. Let us now explain the eaſy mode of conducting theſe gambling bargains, under the ſemblance of real contracts for time.

C. a conſiderable merchant, having had property in the funds, which he has occaſionally ſold out, and bought in again, has conſtantly employed one *broker* to tranſact this buſineſs. Having at laſt, a mind to job in the funds, he watches, what he thinks a favourable opportunity, the ſtate of public affairs inducing him to think that we muſt very ſoon put an end to the war with France, and the debates in parliament at the opening of the ſeſſion of 1801, confirming him in this idea, he orders his broker to buy for his account, in the month of February, 70,000l. 3 per cent. conſols for the reſcounters in May, at 60 per cent. It is evident that the broker cannot know the extent of his employer's fortune, or connexions; he may have commiſſions from his foreign correſpondents, or he may be retiring from buſineſs, and be deſirous to veſt his whole property in the funds: the broker cannot preſume to aſk any queſtions; on the contrary, he gladly executes an order that will pay him a conſiderable ſum for his commiſſion. He therefore buys of ſome other broker, the above mentioned quantity of 3 per cents. and thus the tranſaction is finiſhed *pro tempore*. The months of March and April paſs away. The ſtocks fall, and no appearance of a peace; Mr. Pitt in the

interval has raiſed a very large loan for the ſervice of the current year; the monied men have made uſe of every artifice to lower the value of the old funds, that they might make better terms with the miniſter.

C. begins to be very uneaſy; he frequently goes to the ſtock-exchange, and aſks his broker, if there is no proſpect that ſtocks will riſe; the broker ſhakes his head, and aſſures him, that they muſt fall ſtill lower before the reſcounters (the laſt day of May.) The merchant now, for the firſt time, informs his broker, that he does not intend to take (accept) the ſtock he has bought for him; that it is a mere ſpeculation; a jobbing adventure founded on the proſpect of a peace, and aſks his advice, what he had beſt do.

His anſwer will be, I would adviſe you, ſir, to ſell the ſame quantity immediately, at the price of the day, (ſuppoſe the 3d of May) and cloſe the account, for I am afraid you will only make it worſe by ſtaying till the laſt day of ſettling. The merchant conſents, the broker goes to the ſtock-exchange, and ſells 70,000l, three per cents. for the end of May, at 56 per cent. and the following will be the ſtate of the account.

Iſrael, the broker, bought for Mr. C. 70,000l, 3 per cts. at 60
Sold again at 56
Loſs 4 per cent. £2,800 0
Commiſſion for buying and ſelling at ⅛ per cent. - 87 10
£2,887 10

C. gives a draft upon his banker for the aforeſaid ſum; and conſoles himſelf with the hope of ſpeculating better another time.

But ſuppoſe the employer, not being ſo honeſt as C. refuſes to pay the loſs, the broker has no remedy, he muſt bear it himſelf, and ſettle the account with his brother broker, by paying the difference in the two prices; and if he either cannot, or will not do this, he becomes a *lame duck*, that is to ſay, he can no longer frequent the ſtock-exchange, nor do any more buſineſs on credit with his brethren.

A ſtockjobber in the ſituation of C. who has bought ſtock for time, which he never intended to take, is called at the ſtock-exchange a *Bull*, loaded with a burden he wants to ſhake off. On the contrary, he who has ſold upon ſpeculation, what he does not poſſeſs, and conſequently cannot transfer, is called a *Bear*, eager and hungry, trying to devour the property of others.

The firſt of theſe two parties wants the fund he has bought to riſe, that he may ſell the ſame at an advanced price, and receive a profit, which is called, the *difference*. It is this man's intereſt to propagate falſe intelligence of victories, negociations for peace, &c.

The ſecond, on the contrary, will endeavour to obtain falſe news of defeats by land and ſea, in order to lower the price of the fund he has ſold on ſpeculation, that he may have an opportunity of buying the ſame ſum at a lower price, and thereby receiving a profit.

Thus, by the various arts of ſtockjobbers, real property is affected, and the riſe or fall of the funds is regulated by the jobbing accounts, at the ſtock-exchange, an evil of the firſt magnitude; for in the year 1766, upon intelligence from India of ſome temporary advantages gained by the Eaſt India company's governments in that country, the directors at home imprudently ventured to declare a dividend of 12 per cent. for the enſuing year, which ſet the jobbers in that ſtock to work, and gambling in India ſtock was carried to ſuch a height, that 100l property in that fund, roſe to the value of 270l at market, when parliament was obliged to interfere, and to paſs an act to limit the dividends in future, and to compel the directors to reſcind their aforeſaid declaration. In 1773, the ſame ſtock ſunk to 14l.

The greateſt part of the national debt, conſiſting of 3 per cent. conſols. annuities, in which the moſt buſineſs

is daily tranſacted, the greateſt jobbing and the moſt frequent variations happen in that fund.

All ranks of people, and of both ſexes, engage more or leſs in ſtock-jobbing, through the perſuaſions of their brokers; eſpecially if they are known by transferring, or by purchaſing, to have conſiderable property in the funds. But foreigners, inveſted with public characters, and perſons connected with them, have the beſt opportunities of playing a ſure game, by means of early intelligence, and as they generally carry their gains out of the country, this is another great evil.

EXTRACTS *from* STRUTT's SPORTS *and* PASTIMES *of the* PEOPLE *of* ENGLAND.

PRIVILEGES FOR HUNTING UNDER THE NORMAN KINGS—TYRANNICAL PROCEEDINGS—ANECDOTE OF JAMES I.

DURING the tyrannical government of William the Norman, and his two ſons who ſucceeded him, the reſtrictions concerning the killing of game were by no means meliorated. The privileges of hunting in the royal foreſts were confined to the king and his favourites; and, to render theſe receptacles for the beaſts of the chaſe more capacious, or to make new ones, whole villages were depopulated, and places of divine worſhip overthrown; not the leaſt regard being paid to the miſeries of the ſuffering inhabitants, or the cauſe of religion. Theſe deſpotic proceedings were not confined to royalty, as may be proved from good authority; and this ſubject is delineated, with great force of colouring, by a writer of the twelfth century, when the ſeverity of the game-laws was ſomewhat abated. 'In our time,' ſays the author, 'hunting and hawking are eſteemed the moſt honourable employments, and moſt excellent virtues, by our nobility; and they think it the height of worldly felicity to ſpend the whole of their time in theſe diverſions; accordingly they prepare for them with more ſolicitude, expenſe and parade, than they do for war; and purſue the wild beaſts with greater fury than they do the enemies of their country. By conſtantly following this way of life, they loſe much of their humanity, and become as ſavage, nearly, as the very brutes they hunt.' He then proceeds in this manner: 'Huſbandmen, with their harmleſs herds and flocks, are driven from their well-cultivated fields, their meadows, and their paſtures, that wild beaſts may range in them without interruption.' And adds, addreſſing himſelf to his unfortunate countrymen, 'If one of theſe great and mercileſs hunters ſhall paſs by your habitation, bring forth haſtily all the refreſhment you have in your houſe, or that you can readily buy, or borrow from your neighbours, that you may not be involved in ruin, or even accuſed of treaſon.' If this picture of Norman tyranny be correct, it exhibits a melancholy view of the ſufferings to which the lower claſſes of the people were expoſed; in ſhort, it appears that theſe haughty Nimrods conſidered the murder of a man as a crime of leſs magnitude than the killing of a ſingle beaſt appointed for the chaſe.

King John was particularly attached to the ſports of the field; and his partiality for fine horſes, hounds, and hawks, is evident, from his frequently receiving ſuch animals, by way of payment, inſtead of money, for the renewal of grants, fines, and forfeitures, belonging to the crown.

In the reign of Edward II, this favourite amuſement was reduced to a perfect ſcience, and regular rules eſtabliſhed for its practice; theſe rules were afterward extended by the maſter of the game belonging to king Henry IV, and drawn up for the uſe of his ſon, Henry prince of Wales. Both theſe tracts are preſerved, and we ſhall have

occaſion to ſpeak a little fuller concerning them in the courſe of this chapter.

Edward III took ſo much delight in hunting, that even at the time he was engaged in war with France, and reſident in that country, he had with him in his army ſixty couple of ſtag-hounds, and as many hare-hounds, and every day he amuſed himſelf with hunting or hawking.

It alſo appears that many of the great lords in the Engliſh army had their hounds and their hawks, as well as the king; to this may be added from the ſame author, that is Froiſſart, who was himſelf a witneſs to the fact, that Gaſton earl of Foix, a foreign nobleman contemporary with king Edward, kept upward of ſix hundred dogs in the caſtle for the purpoſe of hunting.

James I preferred this amuſement to hawking or ſhooting*. One time when he was on a hunting party near Bury St. Edmunds, he ſaw an opulent townſman, who had joined the chaſe, 'very brave in his apparel, and ſo glittering and radiant, that he eclipſed all the court.' The king was deſirous of knowing the name of this gay gentleman, and being informed by one of his followers, that it was *Lamme*, he facetiouſly replied, '*Lamb*, call you him? I know not what kind of *lamb* he is, but I am ſure he has not got a good *fleece* upon his back.' Thus it ſeems that even the puns of royalty are worthy of record.

It would be an endleſs, as well as a needleſs taſk, to quote all the paſſages that occur in the poetical and proſe writings of the laſt three centuries, to prove that this favourite paſtime had loſt nothing of its reliſh in the modern times; on the contrary, it ſeems to have been more generally practiſed. Sir Thomas More, who wrote in the reign of Henry VIII, deſcribing the ſtate of manhood, makes a young gallant to ſay,

'Man-hod I am, therefore I me delyght
To hunt and hawke, to nouriſhe up and fede
The greyhounde to the courſe, the hawke to th' flight,
And to beſtryde a good and luſty ſtede.'

Theſe purſuits are ſaid by latter writers to have been deſtructive to the fortunes of many inconſiderate young heirs, who, deſirous of emulating the ſtate of their ſuperiors, have kept their horſes, hounds, and hawks, and flouriſhed away for a ſhort time, in a ſtyle that their income was inadequate to ſupport. Others again, not having it in their power to proceed ſo far, contented themſelves more prudently with joining the parties that were hunting, and partook with them the pleaſure of following the game.

HUNTING FOLLOWED BY THE CLERGY.

The biſhops and abbots of the middle ages hunted with great ſtate, having a large train of retainers and ſervants; and ſome of them are recorded for their ſkill in this fathionable purſuit Walter biſhop of Rocheſter, who lived in the thirteenth century, was an excellant hunter, and ſo fond of the ſport, that at the age of fourſcore he made hunting his ſole employment, to the total neglect of the duties of his office. In the ſucceeding century an abbot of Leiceſter ſurpaſſed all the ſportſmen of the time in the art of hare-hunting; and even when theſe dignitaries were travelling from place to place, upon affairs of buſineſs, they uſually had both hounds and hawks in their train. Fitzſtephen aſſures us, that Thomas Becket, being ſent as ambaſſador from Henry II to the court of France, aſſumed the ſtate of a ſecular potentate; and took with him dogs and hawks of various ſorts, ſuch as were uſed by kings and princes.

The clergy of rank, at all times, had the privilege of hunting in their

* It is ſaid of this monarch that he divided his time between his ſtandiſh, his bottle, and his hunting; the laſt had his fair weather, the two former his dull and cloudy. Wellwood's Memoirs, p. 35.

own parks and enclosures; and therefore, that they might not be prevented from following this favourite pastime, they took care to have such receptacles for game belonging to their priories. At the time of the reformation, the see of Norwich only, was in the possession of no less than thirteen parks, well stocked with deer, and other animals for the chase.

The ladies often accompanied the gentlemen in hunting parties; upon these occasions it was usual to draw the game into a small compass by means of enclosures, and temporary stands were made for them to be spectators of the sport, though in many instances they joined in it, and shot at the animals as they passed by them with arrows. Agreeable to these manners, which custom reconciled to the fair sex, most of the heroines of romance are said to be fond of the sports of the field. In an old poem entitled the 'Squyer of lowe Degree,' the king of Hungary promises his daughter that in the morning she shall go with him on a hunting party, arrayed most gorgeously, and riding in a chariot covered with red velvet, by

'Jennettes of Spayne that ben so white,
Trapped to the ground with velvet white.'

In the field, says he, the game shall be enclosed with nets, and you placed at a stand so conveniently that the harts and the hinds shall come close to you.

'Ye shall be set at such a tryst,
That hert and hynde shall come to your tyst.'

He then commands the music of the bugle-horn.

'To here the bugles there yblow
With theyr bugles in that place,
And seven score raches at his rechase.'

He also assures her that she should have

'A lese of herhounds with her to strake.'

The harehound, or greyhound, was considered as a very valuable present in former times, and especially among the ladies, with whom it appears to have been a peculiar favourite; and therefore in another metrical romance, probably more ancient than the former, called 'Sir Eglamore,' a princess tells the knight that if he was inclined to hunt, she would, as an especial mark of her favour, give him an excellent greyhound, so swift that no deer could escape from his pursuit.

'Syr yf you be on huntynge founde,
I shall you gyve a good greyhounde
That is dunne as a doo:
For as I am trewe gentylwoman,
There was never deer that he at ran,
That myght ycape him fro.'

It is evident, however, that the ladies had hunting parties by themselves, and we find them upon the second plate in the open fields winding the horn, rousing the game, and pursuing it without any other assistance: this delineation, which is by no means singular, is taken from a manuscript written and illuminated early in the fourteenth century. We may also observe, upon these occasions, that the female Nimrods dispensed with the method of riding best suited to the modesty of the sex, and sat astride upon the saddle like the men; but this indecorous custom, I trust, was never general, nor of long continuance, even with the heroines who were most delighted with these masculine exercises. An author of the seventeenth century speaks of another fashion adopted by the fair huntresses of the town of Bury, in Suffolk. 'The Bury ladies' says he, 'that used hawking and hunting, were once in a great vaine of wearing breeches, which it seems gave rise to many severe and ludicrous sarcasms. The only argument in favour of this habit, was decency in case of an accident. But it was observed that such accidents ought to be prevented, in a manner more consistent with the delicacy of the sex, that is, by refraining from those dangerous recreations.

Queen Elizabeth was extremely

ſond of the chaſe, and very frequently indulged herſelf in following of the hounds. 'Her majeſty,' ſays a courtier, writing to ſir Robert Sidney, 'is well, and excellently diſpoſed to hunting, for every ſecond day ſhe is on horſeback, and continues the ſport long'*.

* Rowland Whyte to ſir Robert Sidney, dated September 12, A. D. 1600. It is to be remembered at this time her majeſty had juſt entered the ſeventy-ſeventh year of her age. She was then at her palace at Oatlands: and frequently, when ſhe was not diſpoſed to hunt herſelf, ſhe was entertained with the ſight of the paſtime; as at Cowdrey, in Suſſex, the ſeat of lord Montecute, A. D. 1591, one day after dinner her grace ſaw from a turret 'ſixteen bucks all having fayre lawe, pulled downe with greyhounds in a laund or lawn.' Nichols' Progreſſes, vol. ii.

On the IRRITABILITY *of* NERVES; *by* Everard Home, *Eſq. F. R. S.*

[From the Philoſophical Tranſactions of the Royal Society of London, for the Year 1801.]

THE nerves have been hitherto conſidered as chords that have no powers of contraction within themſelves, but only ſerving as a medium, by means of which the influence of the brain may be communicated to the muſcles, and the impreſſions made upon different parts of the body conveyed to the brain.

The difficulties which attend every attempt to inveſtigate the real ſtate of the nerves in the living body, and the impoſſibility of acquiring any information upon this ſubject after death, may be urged in excuſe for this opinion having been ſo univerſally received, ſince it will be found, from the following experiments and obſervations, to be void of foundation.

The only means by which any knowledge reſpecting the irritability of nerves can be procured, muſt be from the operations in ſurgery performed upon nerves, either in a healthy ſtate, or under the influence of diſeaſe; or from experiments made upon animal bodies before they are wholly deprived of life, and inſtituted for that particular purpoſe.

My attention was directed to this ſubject by the following caſe, which explains many circumſtances reſpecting the actions of the nerves when under the influence of diſeaſe, and gave riſe to the experiments and obſervations contained in this paper.

A perſon thirty-ſix years of age, naturally eager and anxious in his diſpoſition, whoſe ſtomach was peculiarly irritable and irregular in its action, in the winter of the year 1796, while riding in the country, was thrown from his ſeat by a ſudden motion of the horſe; and, in endeavouring to ſave himſelf, fell with his whole weight upon the end of his thumb, againſt the pommel of the ſaddle.

The part ſwelled, and became very painful. A few days after, he hurt it again, which prevented the ſwelling from ſubſiding, and it remained uneaſy and enlarged for three or four months. It afterward got well, but the motions of the thumb were not always under the command of the will; ſo that he was ſenſible, in the years 1797 and 1798, while writing, of finding a difficulty in forming particular letters.

On the evening of the 16th of October 1799, which was cold and damp, he was travelling in a poſt-chaiſe with two other perſons, and let down the window, to ſpeak to the driver. A cold wind blew directly into the carriage, and he endeavoured to pull up the window; but not ſeeing the glaſs riſe, he looked down, and his hand, inſtead of pulling up the window, was lying on his knee. The thumb was bent in toward the palm of the hand; a ſpaſm came upon the muſcles of the arm, making them bend the elbow; and immediately he became inſenſible;

in a quarter of an hour he perfectly recovered himself. Some hours after, upon bending his thumb, to ſhow what had happened to him in the carriage, there was a return of the ſame attack, which alſo rendered him inſenſible for a few minutes.

From this time, he had no return of theſe attacks for nine weeks; at the end of which period, on the 18th of December 1799, he was waving his hand over his head, with a degree of eagerneſs, as a ſign for ſome people to make haſte and follow him; this exertion made the thumb contract toward the palm of the hand, and he fell upon the ground in a ſtate of inſenſibility. This attack went off as the others had done; he had another in the evening; and, in the courſe of the next day, two more, equally violent. As the motion of the thumb was the firſt ſymptom in all theſe attacks, the aſſiſtants were led to contrive a glove, the front of which was ſtrong enough to reſiſt the motion of the thumb, and to keep it in its place: while this was kept on, the attacks were leſs frequent. A ligature was then applied round the fore-arm; when the thumb was beginning to be agitated, this was tightened, and the ſpaſms were found to be arreſted at the ligature, and of courſe deprived of their violence.

From this time, a tourniquet was kept conſtantly upon the fore-arm; and a perſon was always in readineſs to tighten it, the moment the ſpaſm was expected, which was always preceded by a general feel of uneaſineſs all over the body: as ſoon as the ſpaſm went off, which it did inſtantaneouſly, the tourniquet was looſened. The ſpaſms in the thumb and fore-arm returned frequently, and at irregular intervals, generally every three hours, ſometimes oftener, and once did not come on for thirty-ſix hours.

On the third or fourth day, electricity was tried, with a view to relieve them; ſparks drawn from the thumb produced tremors in the muſcles, which were confined to the thumb. An electric ſhock through the ball of the thumb, brought on a very ſevere ſpaſm in the arm; but neither ſparks, nor a ſhock through the other thumb, produced any ſenſible effect.

On the 29th of December, I firſt ſaw the patient; and, after watching the ſymptoms for three days, made the following obſervations upon the complaint.

That the beginning of the attack was ſome involuntary motion of the thumb and fore-finger; and therefore, the diſeaſe appeared to be in the branch of the nerve which ſupplies theſe two parts, called by Winſlow the median nerve.

That the progreſs of the ſpaſms was in the direct courſe of the trunks of the median nerve, up to the head.

That compreſſing the parts in the courſe of that nerve, when it was done before the ſpaſms had reached them, always arreſted their progreſs; but, when once the muſcles had become convulſed, or agitated, the ſame compreſſion had no effect in ſtopping the progreſs of the ſpaſms.

The mode in which the ſpaſms were propagated along the courſe of the nerves, was as follows.

Five or ſix tremors took place in the flexors of the thumb and fore-finger; then ſimilar convulſive motions affected the muſcles of the fore-arm; ſoon after, the muſcles of the arm were thrown into the ſame kind of action; afterward the pectoral muſcle, and ſcaleni of the neck: the muſcles of the lower jaw were probably in the ſame ſtate, although their action was not within the notice of the by-ſtanders. The head was pulled forcibly to that ſide, in quick ſucceſſive motions, and, in a ſecond or two, the whole ceaſed; the parts became tranquil, the inſenſibility went off, and the patient recovered himſelf: there was, however, a general feel of langour and diſtreſs over the whole body, before the recovery.

From theſe obſervations, the diſeaſe appeared to be decidedly in the inferior branches of the median nerve;

and the irritation was conveyed along its courſe, from its terminations in the thumb and fore-finger, to the origin in the brain.

It was propoſed to divide the nerve, as it paſſes from under the annular ligament of the wriſt toward the thumb, to cut off the communication between the diſeaſed extremities and the trunk of the nerve, and ſo put a ſtop to the progreſs of irritation which conſtituted the diſeaſe.

That ſuch an operation might be attended with ſucceſs, was not only rendered probable from reaſoning, but the performing it was fully juſtified by the ſucceſs which had been experienced from a ſimiliar operation, in ſome caſes of the *Tic douleureux*; a diſeaſe, in many reſpects, of the ſame nature with the preſent.

All theſe circumſtances were explained to the patient, who, from a deſire of obtaining relief, conſented to have the nerve divided. This was done on the 1ſt of January 1800, in the following manner: the nerve, as it paſſes from under the annular ligament, toward the thumb and fore-finger, was laid bare, for above an inch in length; it was then detached from its lateral connexions, and, in this expoſed ſtate, a probe-pointed biſtoury was paſſed behind it, and the nerve was raiſed upon the edge of the inſtrument, ſo as to be diſtinctly ſeen by the different medical gentlemen preſent, before it was cut through. As ſoon as it was divided, the two cut ends retracted from one another, to a conſiderable diſtance. This retraction was very unexpected, as the nerve was diſengaged from the cellular membrane, and no other part had been divided, whoſe action could make the portions of the nerve recede.

That nerves, when divided, do retract, is well known in the practice of ſurgery; but this effect has been uſually attributed to the contraction of the neighbouring parts, as the cellular membrane and blood-veſſels, with which the nerves are connected. As none of theſe cauſes could produce the effect in the preſent inſtance, it was natural to ſuppoſe, that an independent action exiſted in the nerve itſelf, which had been ſo much increaſed by the influence of diſeaſe, as to become unuſually great; and, therefore, the retraction was more diſtinctly ſeen than in a healthy ſtate of the body.

The moment the nerve was divided, there was a ſpaſm over the whole body, and a momentary inſenſibility. The blood-veſſels divided in the operation were not ſecured by ligature, but allowed to ſtop of themſelves, to give the wound every chance of healing by the firſt intention. The edges of the ſkin were carefully brought together, and kept in that ſtate by compreſs and bandage, to promote as much as poſſible the union.

For eight hours after the operation, the parts were perfectly quiet, and there was no ſpaſm. The wound then began to feel hot, as if a red-hot coal had been applied to it. To relieve this ſenſation, the outer bandage was looſened, and immediately there were twitches in the nerve, which ſoon went off. The patient felt himſelf generally unwell, extremely nervous, and irritable.

Fifteen hours after the operation, he had a violent ſpaſm, which went along the arm to the head, but did not affect the brain. In an hour, there was a ſecond attack, at which I was preſent; the pulſe was one hundred and five in a minute, the tongue white, a great deal of general irritation, nervous twitches all over the body, but in the greateſt degree in the arm and leg of that ſide. The ſtiff-fronted glove was now put on, to confine the thumb.

The fifth day, ſuppuration took place in the wound; the ſwelling in the hand was much abated; and the patient was able to dreſs and ſhave without ſpaſm, having only twitches in the fingers, and tremors in the fore-arm.

The ſixteenth day, the wound was entirely healed; and, as there had been no return of ſpaſms, the patient was conſidered as well.

On the twenty-fourth day, which

was a fortnight after the ſpaſms had ceaſed, at nine o'clock in the morning, he was awakened by a violent ſpaſm, which paſſed directly up to the head, and affected the brain, producing inſenſibility: this was the only time the brain had been affected ſince the operation.

The return of the ſpaſms after the wound had been healed, made it evident, that the operation of dividing the nerve had not anſwered the purpoſe which was expected from it. The failure probably aroſe from the wound not healing by the firſt intention: the conſequent inflammation rendered the cut end of the nerve uncommonly irritable; and, in this ſtate, the confinement in the hard thickened cicatrix, rendered it liable to be ſtretched by every motion of the thumb, ſo as to bring on a ſpaſmodic contraction.

From this time the patient was not under my direction; but I underſtood, that he tried the effect of large doſes of opium, which did not afford relief. He was then induced to employ electricity, which was alſo unſucceſsful; and he died in a fit, which at the time was believed to be apoplexy, about five months after the operation had been performed; but, as the body was not examined, the nature of the fit could not be aſcertained.

REMARKS ON THE USES AND VIRTUES OF WINE.

WINE has become the moſt uſual beverage of man, and is, at the ſame time, the moſt varied. Wine is known in all climates; and the attraction of this liquor is ſo ſtrong, that the prohibitory law reſpecting it, which Mahomet impoſed on his followers, is daily broken.

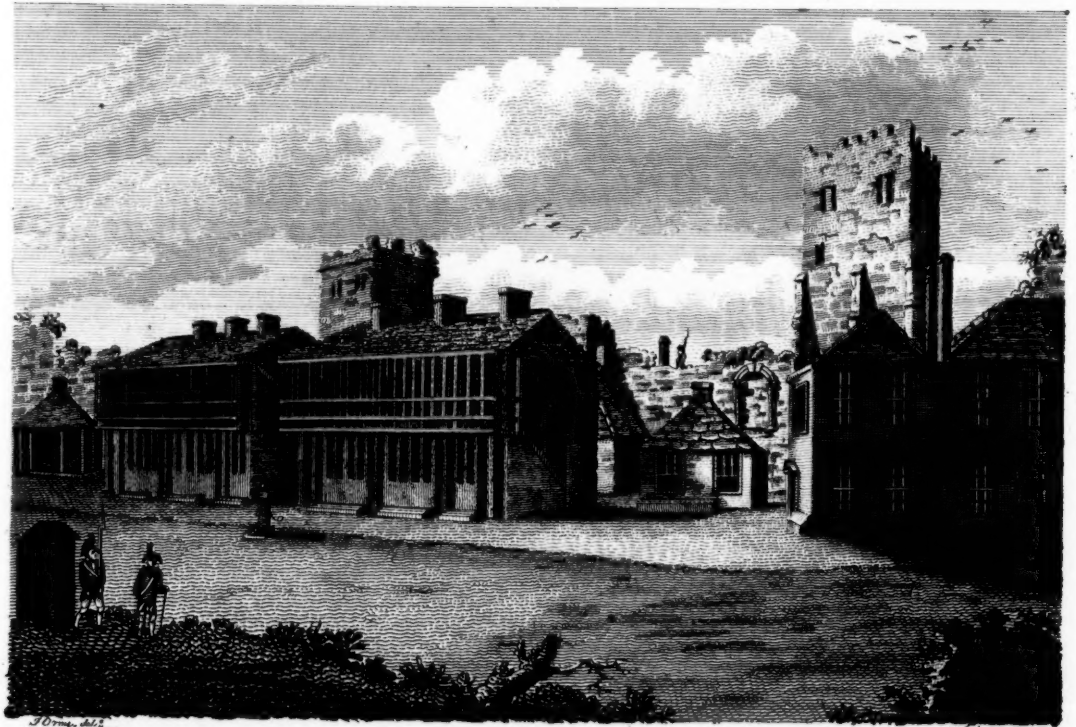
This liquor, beſide being a tonic and ſtrengthener, is alſo more or leſs nutritive: in every point of view, it muſt be ſalutary. The ancients aſcribed to it the property of ſtrengthening the underſtanding. Plato, Æſchylus, and Solomon, all agree in aſcribing to it this virtue. But no writer has better deſcribed the real properties of wine than the celebrated Galen, who aſſigns to each ſort its peculiar uſes, and deſcribes the difference they acquire by age, climate, &c.

Exceſs in regard to the uſe of wine has at all times called forth the cenſure of legiſlators. It was cuſtomary among the Greeks to prevent intoxication by rubbing their temples and forehead with precious ointments and tonics. The anecdote of that famous legiſlator, who, to reſtrain the intemperance of the people, authorized it by an expreſs law, is well known; and we read that Lycurgus cauſed drunken people to be publicly exhibited, in order to excite a horror of intoxication in the Lacedæmonian youth. By a law of Carthage, the uſe of wine was prohibited in the time of war. Plato interdicted it to young perſons below the age of twenty-two. Ariſtotle did the ſame to children and nurſes. And we are informed by Palmarius, that the laws of Rome allowed to prieſts, or thoſe employed in the ſacrifices, but three ſmall glaſſes of wine at their repaſts.

But, notwithſtanding the wiſdom of laws, the hideous picture of intemperance, and the fatal conſequences with which it is attended, the attractions of wine have been ſo powerful among certain nations, that their fondneſs for it has degenerated in a paſſion and real want. We daily ſee men, prudent in other reſpects, gradually acquire the habit of indulging immoderately in the uſe of this liquor; and in their wine extinguiſh their moral faculties and their phyſical ſtrength.

Narratur et priſci Catonis,
Sæpe mero incaluiſſe virtus.

We learn from hiſtory, that Wenceſlas, king of Bohemia and of the Romans, having come to France to negociate a treaty with Charles VI, repaired to Rheims in the month of May 1397, where he got intoxicated every day with the wine of the coun-



Porchester Castle and Barracks. Hampshire.

try, chooſing rather to forego every thing than not indulge in this exceſs.

The virtue of wine differs according to its age. New wine is flatulent, indigeſtible, and purgative: *muſtum flatuoſum et concoctu difficile. Unum in ſe bonum continet, quod alvum emolliat. Vinum rarum infrigidat*;—*muſtum craſſi ſucci eſt, et frigidi.*

The ancients confounded theſe words—*muſtum et novum vinum.* Ovid ſays, *Qui nova muſta bibant. Unde virgo muſta dicta eſt pro intacta et novella.*

Light wines only can be drunk before they have grown old. The Romans followed this cuſtom, and drank their wines in ſucceſſion: *Vinum Gauranum et Albanum, et quæ in Sabinis et in Tuſcis naſcuntur, et Amienum quod circa Neapolim vicinis collibus gignitur.*

New wines are not at all nouriſhing, eſpecially thoſe which are aqueous, and little ſaccharine: *corpori alimentum ſubgerunt pauciſſimum,* ſays Galen.

Theſe wines readily produce intoxication; and the reaſon of this is, the quantity of carbonic acid with which they are charged. This acid, by diſengaging itſelf from the liquor by the temperature of the ſtomach, extinguiſhes the irritability of the organs, and brings on ſtupor.

Old wines, in general, are tonic, and very wholeſome: they are ſuited to weak ſtomachs, old people, and in all caſes were ſtrengthening is neceſſary: they afford very little nouriſhment, becauſe they are deprived of their really nouriſhing principles, and contain ſcarcely any other than alcohol.

Wines differ eſſentially in regard to colour. Red, in general, is more ſpiritous, lighter, and more digeſtible: white wine furniſhes leſs alcohol, and is more diuretic and weaker, as it has remained leſs time in the vat: it is almoſt always more oily, more nutritive, and more gaſeous, than the red.

The art of tempering wine by the addition of one part of water was practiſed among the ancients: wine of this kind they called *vinum dilutum.* Pliny, after Homer, ſpeaks of a wine which could bear twenty parts of water. The ſame hiſtorian informs us, that in his time wines ſo ſpiritous were known, that they could not be drunk: *niſi pervincerentur aqua et attenuentur aqua calida.*

The ancients, who had very juſt and correct ideas reſpecting the art of making and preſerving wines, ſeem to have been unacquainted with that of diſtilling ſpirit from them: the firſt correct ideas reſpecting the diſtillation of wine are aſcribed to Arnaud de Villeneuve, profeſſor of medicine at Montpellier.

The diſtillation of wines has given a new value to this production. It has not only furniſhed a new beverage, ſtronger and incorruptible, but has made known to the arts the real ſolvent of reſins and of aromatic principles, and, at the ſame time, a mean as ſimple as certain for preſerving animal and vegetable ſubſtances from all putrid decompoſition. It is on theſe remarkable properties that the art of the varniſher, the perfumer, the maker of liqueurs, and others founded on the ſame baſis, have been ſucceſſively eſtabliſhed.

ACCOUNT OF PORTCHESTER CASTLE.

With a perſpective View of the CASTLE *and the* BARRACKS.

PORTCHESTER CASTLE takes its name from the village, wherein it ſtands, which is five miles north-weſt of Portſmouth. It was once a town of note, then called Caer-Peris. Stow, from Rouſe, ſays it was built by Gurgunſtus, ſon of Beline, who lived three hundred and ſeventy-five years before Chriſt; it was likewiſe, according to tradition, the place where Veſpaſian landed: it had then a famous harbour; but the ſea retiring,

Portchester Castle and Barracks. Hampshire.

the inhabitants left the place and removed to the iſland of Portſey. Both the founder, and the time when this caſtle was built, are unknown; but it is univerſally acknowledged to be of great antiquity.

The caſtle is a ſquare, whoſe internal ſide is four hundred and forty feet; its area contains four acres, four chains, and ſeven perches.

The walls are ſix feet thick, and about fifteen high, having in many places a paſſage round them, covered with a parapet. It has eighteen towers of various ſhapes and magnitudes, including thoſe of the Keep, and is ſurrounded on the north, weſt, and ſouth ſides, by a ditch of different breadths, fifteen feet deep; on the eaſt, it has been filled up by the ſea. The entrance is on the weſt ſide, through a gate, thirty feet deep, and fourteen wide, under a ſquare tower. On the inſide, over the gate, are two projecting figures, ſomewhat reſembling Egyptian ſphinxes. In the eaſt wall, directly oppoſite this gate, is another of like dimenſions. There are likewiſe two ſally ports.

The Keep encompaſſes a parallelogram of ſixty-five by one hundred and fifteen feet. It has four towers, three of them ſtanding on the outſide wall; one of which, much larger than the reſt, forms the north-weſt angle of the ſquare; the fourth ſtands at the ſouth-eaſt corner of this building. Here are many rooms, ſeveral very large, and ſome arched with ſtone; among them, one which appears to have been a chapel. The entrance is through a gate, on the ſouth ſide, only eight feet wide. Several of theſe towers, as well as part of the walls, are now in ruins.

Toward the ſouth-eaſt part of the area of the ſquare, ſtands St. Mary's, or the pariſh church of Portcheſter. Here king Henry I, in the year 1133, founded a priory of canons of the order of St. Auguſtine, which was not long after removed to Southwicke, where it continued till the diſſolution, when it was valued at two hundred and fifty ſeven pounds, four ſhillings and fourpence *per annum*, according to both Dugdale and Speed. The ſcite was granted, the thirtieth of Henry VIII, to John White. The living of Portcheſter is a vicarage of which the king is patron; and, according to Ecton, it is diſcharged.

This church has manifeſt marks of great antiquity; and by a moulding on the ſouth ſide of the tower, formerly ſerving to cover the extremity of the roof, it appears it had once a ſouth aiſle, anſwered to that now ſtanding on the north, which completed the form of the croſs. The eaſt end has been likewiſe rebuilt, as is viſible by a ſimilar circumſtance, which ſhows it was formerly of the ſame height as the weſt part of the body of the church. The arches over the doors and windows of the ancient part are all circular, and at the weſt end are richly decorated with thoſe indented ornaments, which characterize the ſtyle of Saxon architecture. It was laſt repaired in the year 1710, by queen Anne. In it is a curious font; and alſo the monument of ſir Thomas Cornwallis, knight, groom-porter to queen Eliſabeth and king James I.

This caſtle formerly belonged to the family of the Nortons, and afterward to that of the Whiteheads, who conveyed it to Alexander, father of Robert Thiſtlethwaite, eſq. the preſent proprietor.

In the laſt and two preceding wars, as well as in the preſent, it was rented by government for the keeping of the Spaniſh and French priſoners. This occaſioned ſeveral temporary buildings and conveniencies to be erected; and the pulling of theſe down, together with the breaches made by the priſoners in attempting to eſcape, has not a little cooperated with time in his depredations on this ancient ſtructure.

In our Magazine for October 1791, *we gave a perſpective view of this* Caſtle *by the Sea, accompanied with the ſame hiſtorical deſcription, which is here reprinted, for the information of ſuch of our readers as may not be in poſſeſſion of that Magazine.*

ANECDOTES *of* MASSILON, *the celebrated* FRENCH BISHOP.

[By D'ALEMBERT.]

SCARCELY did Maſſillon begin to ſhow himſelf in the pulpits of Paris, than he eclipſed all thoſe who at that period ſhone in the ſame career. He had declared 'that he would not preach like them,' not through a preſumptuous confidence in his ſuperiority, but through an equally juſt and mature idea that he had formed of Chriſtian eloquence. He was perſuaded that if the miniſter of God's word, on the one hand, degrades himſelf by uttering common truths in trivial language, on the other, he miſſes his purpoſe by thinking to captivate his audience with a long chain of reaſoning, which they are incapable of following; he knew that if all hearers are not bleſſed with an informed mind, all have a heart, whence the preacher ought to ſeek his arms; that, in the pulpit, man ought to be ſhown to himſelf, not ſo much to diſguſt him by a ſhocking portrait, as to afflict him by the reſemblance; and in fine, that if it is ſometimes uſeful to alarm and diſquiet him, it is ſtill more ſo to draw from him thoſe tears of ſenſibility, which are much more efficacious than the tears of deſpair.

Such was the plan Maſſillon propoſed to himſelf, and he executed it like one who had conceived it; that is, like a maſter. He excells in that part of oratory, which may ſtand in ſtead of all the reſt—that eloquence which goes right to the ſoul, but which agitates without confounding, appals without cruſhing, penetrates without lacerating it: he goes to the bottom of the heart, in ſearch of thoſe hidden folds in which the paſſions are enwrapt—thoſe ſecret ſophiſms, which they ſo artfully employ to blind and ſeduce us. To combat and deſtroy theſe ſophiſms, it merely ſuffices to develope them; but he does it in a language ſo affectionate and tender, that he ſubdues leſs than he attracts; and even in diſplaying before us the picture of our vices, he knows how to attach and pleaſe us. His diction, always eaſy, elegant, and pure, never deviates from that noble ſimplicity, without which there is neither good taſte nor genuine eloquence. This ſimplicity, being joined in Maſſillon, to the ſofteſt and moſt ſeducing harmony, borrows from it ſtill new graces; and what completes the charm of this enchanting ſtyle is, that ſo many beauties are felt to flow freely from the ſpring without expence to their author. Sometimes, even, there eſcape from him, either in the expreſſions, the turns, or the ſweet melody of his periods, negligences which may be called happy, ſince they perfectly efface not only the ſtamp, but even the ſuſpicion, of labour. It was by this inattention to ſelf, that Maſſillon made as many friends as auditors; he knew that the more an orator ſeems occupied in catching admiration, the leſs his hearers are diſpoſed to grant it; and that this ambition is the rock fatal to ſo many preachers, who, entruſted (if I may ſo exprets myſelf) with the intereſts of God himſelf, chooſe to mix with it the little intereſts of their vanity. Maſſillon, on the contrary, thought it a very empty pleaſure, 'to have to do,' as Montaigne expreſſes it, 'with people who always admire and make way for us;' eſpecially at thoſe ſeaſons, when it is ſo delightful to forget one's ſelf, in order to be ſolely occupied with thoſe feeble and unfortunate beings, whom duty enjoins to conſole and inſtruct. He compared the ſtudied eloquence of profane preachers, to thoſe flowers, which ſtifle the products of harveſt, and, though very agreeable to the ſight, are equally hurtful to the crop.

It ſeemed wonderful that a man, devoted by ſtation to retirement, ſhould know the world ſo well as to

draw ſuch exact pictures of the paſſions, eſpecially of ſelf-love. 'I have learned to draw them,' he candidly ſaid, 'by ſtudying myſelf.' He proved it in a manner equally energetic and ingenuous, by his confeſſion to one of his brethren, who congratulated him on the ſucceſs of his ſermons: 'The Devil,' he replied, 'has already told it me more eloquently than you.'

Maſſillon derived another advantage from that eloquence of the ſoul, which he ſo well underſtood: as, in ſpeaking to the heart of man, he ſpoke the language of all conditions, all went to hear his ſermons; even unbelievers attended upon him, and often met with inſtruction where they only ſought amuſement. The reaſon was, that Maſſillon knew how to deſcend on their account to the only language they would hear, that of a philoſophy, purely human in appearance, but which, finding every acceſs to their hearts open, prepared the way for the Chriſtian orator to approach them without effort and unreſiſted, and to obtain a conqueſt even without a combat.

His action was perfectly ſuited to his ſpecies of eloquence: on entering the pulpit, he appeared thoroughly penetrated with the great truths he was about to utter: with eyes declined, a modeſt and collected air, without violent motions, and almoſt without geſtures, but animating the whole with a voice of ſenſibility, he diffuſed over his audience the religious emotion, which his own exterior proclaimed, and cauſed himſelf to be liſtened to with that profound ſilence, by which eloquence is better praiſed than by the loudeſt applauſes. The reputation of his manner alone, induced the celebrated baron to attend on one of his diſcourſes; on leaving the church, he ſaid to a friend who accompanied him, 'This man is an orator, and we are only players.'

The court ſoon wiſhed to hear him, or rather to judge him, without pride, as without fear, he appeared on this great and formidable theatre. He opened with diſtinguiſhed luſtre; and the exordium of his firſt diſcourſe, is one of the maſter-ſtrokes of modern eloquence. Lewis XIV, was then at the ſummit of power and glory, admired by all Europe, adored by his ſubjects, intoxicated with adulation, and ſatiated with homage. Maſſillon took for his text a paſſage of ſcripture, apparently leaſt applicable to ſuch a prince: 'Bleſſed are they that mourn;' and from this he had the art to draw an eulogy the more novel and flattering, as it ſeemed dictated by the goſpel itſelf, and ſuch as an apoſtle might have made. '' Sire,' ſaid he, 'if the world were here ſpeaking to your majeſty, it would not addreſs you with "Bleſſed are they that mourn:" "Bleſſed," would it ſay, "the prince who never fought but to conquer; who has filled the univerſe with his name; who, in the courſe of a long and flouriſhing reign, has enjoyed with ſplendour all that men admire, the greatneſs of his conqueſts, the love of his people, the eſteem of his enemies, the wiſdom of his laws:"—but, fire, the goſpel ſpeaks not as the world ſpeaks.'

The audience of Verſailles, accuſtomed as they were to the Boſſuets and Bourdaloues, were unacquainted with an eloquence, at the ſame time ſo delicate and ſo noble: in conſequence, it excited in the aſſembly, notwithſtanding the gravity of the place, an involuntary expreſſion of admiration. There only wanted, to render this paſſage ſtill more impreſſive, that it ſhould have been pronounced in the midſt of the misfortunes which ſucceeded our triumphs, and at a time when the monarch, who, during fifty years had experienced nothing but proſperity, lived only to ſorrow. If ever Lewis XIV heard a more eloquent exordium, it was perhaps that of a religious miſſionary, who, on his firſt appearance before the king, thus began his diſcourſe.—'Sire, I mean not to pay a compliment to your majeſty, I have found none in the goſpel.'

Madame de Coulanges, in a letter to madame de Sevigne, makes a very judicious reflection on the ſpecies of ſucceſs, which Maſſillon experienced at court. 'He ſucceeded,' ſays ſhe, 'at Verſailles, as he did at Paris; but one who ſows at court often ſows in an ungrateful ſoil; for they who are much moved with ſermons are already converted, and the reſt wait for grace, often without impatience: the impatience itſelf would be a great grace.'

Truth, even when it ſpeaks in the name of God, ought to content itſelf with knocking at the door of kings, and ſhould never break it open. Maſſillon, convinced of this maxim, did not imitate ſome of his predeceſſors, who had diſplayed their zeal by preaching Chriſtian morality in the manſions of vice, with an auſterity capable of rendering it odious, and of expoſing it to the reſentment of haughty and offended power. Our orator was always firm, but always reſpectful, while he announced to his ſovereign the will of the judge of Kings. He filled the meaſure of his miniſtry, but he never ſurpaſſed it; and the monarch, who might have left his chapel diſcontented with the liberty of ſome other preachers, never left it after a ſermon of Maſſillon's, but 'diſcontented with himſelf.' Theſe were the very words of the prince to this orator; words which contained the higheſt eulogy he could give; yet one, which ſo many preachers before and ſince Maſſillon have not wiſhed to obtain, while they were more ſolicitous to pleaſe the critics than to convert ſinners.

The excellent anſwer of Lewis XIV, to a preacher, who had groſsly marked him out in a ſermon delivered in his preſence, is well known, 'I am willing to take my ſhare in the ſermon, but I do not like to have it made *at me.*' It has been ſaid that even Bourdaloue exceeded the bounds in this point; and that during the time of the king's amour with madame de Monteſpan, he ventured from the pulpit to remind the monarch of David's adultery with Bathſheba, by addreſſing to him the words of the prophet Nathan, 'Thou art the man.' It is difficult to believe that Bourdaloue ſhould ſo far have carried his apoſtolic boldneſs; and ſtill more, that his brother jeſuits ſhould have approved it. They did not pique themſelves on preaching the goſpel ſo rudely, eſpecially at court. This pretended anecdote has doubtleſs been invented in order to honour Lewis with his ſuppoſed reply: 'He has done his duty, let us do ours.' At leaſt, it is certain, that whatever he ſaid, he did nothing, for he kept his miſtreſs. The duke of Orleans, when in the plenitude of his power as regent, treated with a nobler indifference a fanatical Janſeniſt of Amiens, who had preached againſt him in his village. 'Why does the man trouble himſelf about me?' ſaid he, 'I do not belong to his pariſh.' It was with this ſame clergyman that the *cardinal* de Noailles, remonſtrated on the violence of his zeal. 'A little more prudence, good ſir;' ſaid the prelate to him. 'My lord,' anſwered the prieſt, 'my catechiſm has long taught me that prudence is one of the *cardinal* virtues!'

The jeſuits of Clermont, perhaps in order to detect his ſentiments, and lay a ſnare for him, denounced to Maſſillon, an oratorian accuſed of preaching Janſeniſm. The prelate, deſirous of giving a proof of his orthodoxy to theſe zealous and clear-ſighted informers, ſent for the preacher, and, in preſence of two jeſuits, ſaid to him, 'I am aſſured, father, that you preach a doctrine.'—'Yes, my lord,' replied the Oratorian, without giving him time to finiſh, 'I preach thoſe truths, which have made you a biſhop.' Maſſillon held his peace, and ſent back the oratorian to his pulpit, and the jeſuits to hunt out other victims.—

Among the countleſs alms which he gave, there were ſome which he concealed with the greateſt care, not only to favour the delicacy of unfortunate individuals, but ſometimes to

ſpare whole communities the ſenſation of inquietude and fear, however groundleſs, which theſe donations might occaſion them. A numerous convent of nuns had for ſeveral days been without bread. The ſiſterhood had reſolved to periſh rather than make known their ſhocking diſtreſs, through the apprehenſion that it might cauſe the ſuppreſſion of their houſe, to which they were more attached than to life. Maſſillon learned at the ſame time their extreme neceſſity, and the motive of their ſilence. Eager to give them relief, he was fearful of alarming them by ſeeming informed of their ſituation; he therefore ſecretly ſent them a very conſiderable ſum, which rendered their ſubſiſtence ſecure, till he had found means to provide them with other reſources; and it was not till after his death that they became acquainted with the benefactor to whom they were ſo greatly indebted.

He died, as Fenelon died, and as every biſhop ought to die, without money and without debts. It was on the 28th of September 1742, that the church, eloquence, and humanity, ſuſtained this irreparable loſs.

A recent incident, well calculated to affect feeling hearts, affords a proof how dear the memory of Maſſillon is, not only to the indigent whoſe tears he dried, but to all who have known him. Some years ſince, a traveller who happened to be at Clermont, wiſhed to ſee the country-ſeat, where the prelate was accuſtomed to paſs great part of the year. He applied to an ancient grand-vicar, who, ſince the biſhop's death, had not had reſolution to return to this country manſion, now deprived of its inhabitant. He conſented, however, to ſatisfy the traveller's deſire, notwithſtanding the pain he expected from reviſiting a ſpot ſo ſadly dear to his remembrance. They went together, and the grand-vicar ſhowed every thing to the ſtranger. 'Here,' ſaid he, with tears in his eyes, 'is the alley where the worthy prelate took his walks with us; here is the arbour under which he uſed to repoſe while he read; this is the garden which he cultivated with his own hands.' They then entered the houſe, and when they came to the chamber in which Maſſillon had breathed his laſt; 'This,' ſaid the grand-vicar, 'is the place where we loſt him;' and, as he ſpoke theſe words, he fainted away. The ſhade of Titus or Marcus Aurelius might have envied ſuch a homage.

ON CASTLE BUILDING, AND OTHER FLIGHTS OF FANCY.

WHEN the work of the day is over, and a man lies down to relax his body and mind, he cannot ceaſe from thinking, though he deſires it. Something occurs to his fancy; that is followed by another thing, and ſo his thoughts are carried on from one object to another, until ſleep cloſes the ſcene.

In this operation of the mind, it is not one faculty only that is employed: there are many that join together in its production. Sometimes the tranſactions of the day are brought upon the ſtage, and acted over again, as it were, upon this theatre of the imagination. In this caſe, memory ſurely acts the moſt conſiderable part, ſince the ſcenes exhibited are not fictions, but realities, which we remember; yet, in this caſe, the memory does not act alone, other powers are employed, and attend upon their proper objects. The tranſactions remembered will be more or leſs intereſting: and we cannot then review our own conduct, nor that of others, without paſſing ſome judgement upon it. This we approve, and that we diſapprove. This elevates, that humbles and depreſſes us. Perſons that are not abſolutely indifferent to us, can hardly appear, even to the imagination, without ſome friendly or unfriendly emotion. We judge and reaſon about

things, as well as perſons in ſuch reveries. We remember what a man ſaid and did; from this we paſs to his deſigns, and to his general character, and frame ſome hypotheſis to make the whole conſiſtent. Such trains of thought we may call hiſtorical.

There are others which we may call romantic; in which the plot is formed by the creative power of fancy, without any regard to what did or will happen. In theſe alſo, the powers of judgement, taſte, moral ſentiment, as well as the paſſions and affections, come in and take a ſhare in the execution. In theſe ſcenes, the man himſelf commonly acts a very diſtinguiſhed part, and ſeldom does any thing which he cannot approve. Here the miſer will be generous, the coward brave, and the knave honeſt. Mr. Addiſon calls this play of the fancy CASTLE BUILDING.

The young politician, who has turned his thoughts to the affairs of government, becomes in his imagination a miniſter of ſtate. He examines every ſpring and wheel of the machine of government with the niceſt eye, and the moſt exact judgement. He finds a proper remedy for every diſorder of the commonwealth, quickens trade and manufactures by ſalutary laws, encourages arts and ſciences, and makes the nation happy at home, and reſpected abroad. He feels the reward of his good adminiſtration, in that ſelf-approbation which attends it, and is happy in acquiring, by his wiſe and patriotic conduct, the bleſſings of the preſent age, and the praiſes of thoſe that are to come.

It is probable, that, upon the ſtage of imagination, more great exploits have been performed in every age, than have been upon the ſtage of life from the beginning of the world. An innate deſire of ſelf-approbation is undoubtedly a part of the human conſtitution. It is a powerful ſpur to worthy conduct, and is intended as ſuch by the Author of our being. A man cannot be eaſy or happy, unleſs this deſire be in ſome meaſure gratified. While he conceives himſelf worthleſs and baſe, he can reliſh no enjoyment. The humiliating mortifying ſentiment muſt be removed, and this natural deſire of ſelf-approbation will either produce a noble effort to acquire real worth, which is its proper direction, or it will lead into ſome of thoſe arts of ſelf-deceit, which create a falſe opinion of worth.

A caſtle builder, in the fictitious ſcenes of his fancy, will figure, not according to his real character, but according to the higheſt opinion he has been able to form of himſelf, and perhaps far beyond that opinion. For in thoſe imaginary conflicts the paſſions eaſily yield to reaſon, and a man exerts the nobleſt efforts of virtue and magnanimity, with the ſame eaſe, as, in his dreams, he flies through the air, or plunges to the bottom of the ocean.

The romantic ſcenes of fancy are moſt commonly the occupation of young minds, not yet ſo deeply engaged in life as to have their thoughts taken up by its real cares and buſineſs. Thoſe active powers of the mind, which are moſt luxuriant by conſtitution, or have been moſt cheriſhed by education, impatient to exert themſelves, hurry the thought into ſcenes that give them play; and the boy commences in imagination, according to the bent of his mind, a general or a ſtateſman, a poet or an orator.

When the fair ones become caſtle-builders, they uſe different materials; and while the young ſoldier is carried into the field of Mars, where he pierces the thickeſt ſquadrons of the enemy, deſpiſing death in all its forms, the gay and lovely nymph, whoſe heart has never felt the tender paſſion, is tranſported into a brilliant aſſembly, where ſhe draws the attention of every eye, and makes an impreſſion on the nobleſt heart.

But no ſooner has Cupid's arrow found its way into her own heart, than the whole ſcenery of her imagination is changed. Balls and aſſem-

blies have now no charms. Woods and groves, the flowery bank, and the chryſtal fountain, are the ſcenes ſhe frequents in imagination. She becomes an Arcadian ſhepherdeſs, feeding her flock beſide that of her Strephon, and wants no more to complete her happineſs. In a few years the love-ſick maid is transformed into the ſolicitous mother. Her ſmiling offspring play around her. She views them with a parents' eye. Her imagination immediately raiſes them to manhood, and brings them forth upon the ſtage of life. One ſon makes a figure in an army, another ſhines at the bar; her daughters are happily diſpoſed of in marriage, and bring new alliances to the family. Her children's children riſe up before her, and venerate her gray hairs.

Thus the ſpontaneous ſallies of fancy are as various as the cares and fears, the deſires and hopes of man

Quicquid agunt homines, &c.

Theſe fill up the ſcenes of fancy, as well as the page of the ſatiriſt. Whatever poſſeſſes the heart makes occaſional excurſions into the imagination, and acts ſuch ſcenes upon that theatre as are agreeable to the prevailing paſſion. The man of traffic, who has committed a rich cargo to the inconſtant ocean, follows it in his thought; and, accordingly as his hopes or his fears prevail, he is haunted with ſtorms, and rocks, and ſhipwreck; or he makes a happy and a lucrative voyage: and before his veſſel has loſt ſight of land, he has diſpoſed of the profit which ſhe is to bring at her return.

The poet is carried into the Elyſian fields, where he converſes with the ghoſts of Homer and Orpheus. The philoſopher makes a tour through the planetary ſyſtem, or goes down to the centre of the earth, and examines its various ſtrata. In the devout man likewiſe, the great objects that poſſeſs his heart often play in his imagination: ſometimes he is tranſported to the regions of the bleſſed, from whence he looks down with pity upon the folly and pageantry of human life: or he proſtrates himſelf before the throne of the Moſt High with devout veneration: or he converſes with celeſtial ſpirits about the natural and moral kingdom of God, which he now ſees only by a faint light, but hopes hereafter to view with a ſteadier and brighter eye.

In perſons come to maturity, there is even in theſe ſpontaneous ſallies of fancy, ſome arrangement of thought: and I conceive that it will be readily allowed, that in thoſe who have the greateſt ſtock of knowledge, and the beſt natural parts, even the ſpontaneous movements of fancy will be the moſt regular and connected. They have an order, connection and unity, by which they are no leſs diſtinguiſhed from the dreams of one aſleep, or the ravings of one delirious, on the one hand, than from the finiſhed productions of art on the other.

How is this regular arrangement brought about? It has all the marks of judgement and reaſon, yet it ſeems to go before judgement, and to ſpring forth ſpontaneouſly. This is a queſtion which has puzzled, and will long continue to puzzle philoſophers.

OPINIONS *of* MODERN AUTHORS *reſpecting the* EXISTENCE *of the* AMAZONS.

THE amazons are mentioned by many ancient authors, and if any credit be due to the accounts concerning them, they ſubſiſted through ſeveral ages. They are repreſented as having rendered themſelves extremely formidable; as having founded cities, enlarged the boundaries of their dominions, and conquered ſeveral other nations.

That at any period there ſhould have been women, who, without the aſſiſtance of men, built cities and governed them, raiſed armies and com-

manded them, adminiſtered public affairs, and extended their dominion by arms, is undoubtedly ſo contrary to all that we have ſeen and known of human affairs, as to appear in a very great degree incredible; but that women may have exiſted ſufficiently robuſt, and ſufficiently courageous, to have engaged in warlike enterprizes, and even to have been ſucceſsful in them, is certainly not impoſſible, however contrary to the uſual courſe of things. In ſupport of this ſide of the queſtion, it may be urged, that women who have been early trained to warlike exerciſes, to hunting, and to a hard and laborious mode of living, may be rendered more ſtrong, and capable of more vigorous exertions, than men who have led indolent, delicate, and luxurious lives, and who have ſeldom been expoſed even to the inclemencies of the weather. The limbs of women, as well as of men, are ſtrengthened and rendered more robuſt by frequent and laborious exerciſe. A nation of women, therefore, brought up and diſciplined as the ancient Amazons are repreſented to have been, would be ſuperior to an equal number of hardy men, trained up and diſciplined in the ſame manner.

That much of what is ſaid of the Amazons is fabulous, there can be no reaſonable doubt; but it does not therefore follow, that the whole is without foundation. The ancient medals and monuments on which they are repreſented are very numerous, as are alſo the teſtimonies of ancient writers. It ſeems not rational to ſuppoſe that all this originated in fiction, though it may be much blended with it. The abbe Guyon ſpeaks of the hiſtory of the Amazons as having been regarded by many perſons as fabulous, 'rather from prejudice than from any real and ſolid examination,' and it muſt be acknowledged, that the arguments in favour of their exiſtence, from ancient hiſtory, and from ancient monuments, are extremely powerful. The fact ſeems to be, that truth and fiction have been blended in narrations concerning theſe ancient heroines.

Inſtances of herioſm in women have occaſionally occurred in modern times, ſomewhat reſembling that of the ancient Amazons. The times and the manners of chivalry, in particular, by bringing great enterprizes, bold adventures, and extravagant heroiſm, into faſhion, inſpired the women with the ſame taſte. The women, in conſequence of the prevailing paſſion, were now ſeen in the middle of camps and of armies. They quitted the ſoft and tender inclinations, and the delicate offices of their own ſex, for the toils, and the toilſome occupation of ours. During the cruſades, animated by the double enthuſiaſm of religion and of valour, they often performed the moſt romantic exploits; obtained indulgencies on the field of battle, and died with arms in their hands, by the ſide of their lovers or of their huſbands.

In Europe, the women attacked and defended fortifications: princeſſes commanded their armies and obtained victories. Such was the celebrated Joan de Montfort, diſputing for her duchy of Bretagne, and fighting herſelf. Such was that ſtill more celebrated Margaret of Anjou, that active and intrepid general and ſoldier, whoſe genius ſupported a long time a feeble huſband; which taught him to conquer; which replaced him upon the throne; which twice relieved him from priſon; and, oppreſſed by fortune and by rebels, which did not bend till after ſhe had decided in perſon twelve battles.

The warlike ſpirit among the women, conſiſtent with ages of barbariſm, when every thing is impetuous, becauſe nothing is fixed, and when all exceſs is the exceſs of force, continued in Europe upward of four hundred years, ſhowing itſelf from time to time, and always in the middle of convulſions, or on the eve of great revolutions. But there were eras and countries in which that ſpirit appeared with particular luſtre. Such were the diſplays it made in the 15th and

16th centuries in Hungary, and in the iſlands of the Archipelago, and the Mediterranean, when they were invaded by the Turks.

Among the ſtriking inſtances of Amazonian conduct in modern ladies, may be mentioned that of Jane of Belville, widow of Monſ. de Cliſſon, who was beheaded at Paris in the year 1343, on a ſuſpicion of carrying on a correſpondence with England and the Count de Montfort. This lady, filled with grief for the death of her late huſband, and exaſperated at the ill treatment which ſhe conſidered him as having received, ſent off her ſon ſecretly to London: and when her apprehenſions were removed with reſpect to him, ſhe ſold her jewels, fitted out three ſhips, and put to ſea, to revenge the death of her huſband upon all the French with whom ſhe ſhould meet. This new corſair made ſeveral deſcents upon Normandy, where ſhe ſtormed caſtles: and the inhabitants of that province were ſpectators more than once, while their villages were all in a blaze, of one of the fineſt women in Europe, with a ſword in one hand and a torch in the other, urging the carnage, and eyeing with pleaſure all the horrors of war.

We read in Mezeray, under the article of the Croiſade, preached by St. Bernard in the year 1147, that many women did not content themſelves with taking the croſs, but that they alſo took up arms to defend it, and compoſed ſquadrons of females, which rendered credible all that has been ſaid of the proweſs of the Amazons.

In the year 1590, the League party obtained ſome troops from the king of Spain. Upon the news of their being diſembarked, Barri-de St. Aunez, Henry IVth's governor at Leucate, ſet out to communicate a ſcheme to the duke de Montmorenci, commander in that province. He was taken in his way by ſome of the troops of the League, who were alſo upon their march with the Spaniards toward Leucate. They were perſuaded, that by thus having the governor in their hands, the gates of that place would be immediately opened to them, or at leaſt would not hold out long. But Conſtantia de Cecilli, his wife, after having aſſembled the garriſon, put herſelf ſo reſolutely at their head, pike in hand, that ſhe inſpired the weakeſt with courage: and the beſiegers were repulſed wherever they preſented themſelves. Shame, and their great loſs, having rendered them deſperate, they ſent a meſſage to this courageous woman, acquainting her that if ſhe continued to defend herſelf, they would hang her huſband. She replied, with tears in her eyes, 'I have riches in abundance: I have offered them, and I do ſtill offer them for his ranſom: but I would not ignominiouſly purchaſe a life which he would reproach me with, and which he would be aſhamed to enjoy. I will not diſhonour him by treaſon againſt my king and country.' The beſiegers having made a freſh attack without ſucceſs, put her huſband to death, and raiſed the ſiege. Henry IV afterward ſent to this lady the brevet of governeſs of Leucate, with the reverſion for her ſon.

The famous Maid of Orleans, alſo, is an example known to every reader. The abbe Arnaud, in his memoirs, ſpeaks of a counteſs of St. Balmount, who uſed to take the field with her huſband and fight by his ſide. She ſent ſeveral priſoners of her taking to marſhal Feuquiers: and what is not a little extraordinary, this amazon at home was all affability and ſweetneſs, and gave herſelf up to reading and acts of piety.

Dr. Johnſon ſeems to have given ſome credit to the accounts which have been tranſmitted down to us concerning the ancient Amazons: and he has endeavoured to ſhow, that we ought not haſtily to reject ancient hiſtorical narrations becauſe they contain facts repugnant to modern manners, and exhibit ſcenes to which nothing now occurring bears a reſemblance. Of what we know not, ſays he, we can only judge by what we know. Every novelty appears more wonderful, as

it is more remote from any thing with which experience or teſtimony have hitherto acquainted us: and if it paſſes farther, beyond the notions that we have been accuſtomed to form, it becomes at laſt incredible. We ſeldom conſider, that human knowledge is very narrow: that national manners are formed by chance: that uncommon conjunctures of cauſes produce rare effects; or that what is impoſſible at one time or place may yet happen in another. It is always eaſier to deny than to enquire. To refuſe credit confers for a moment an appearance of ſuperiority which every little mind is tempted to aſſume, when it may be gained ſo cheaply as by withdrawing attention from evidence, and declining the fatigue of comparing probabilities. Many relations of travellers have been ſlighted as fabulous, till more frequent voyages have confirmed their veracity: and it may reaſonably be imagined, that many ancient hiſtorians are unjuſtly ſuſpected of falſehood, becauſe our own times afford nothing that reſembles what they tell. Few narratives will either to men or women appear more incredible than the hiſtories of the amazons; of female nations, of whoſe conſtitution it was the eſſential and fundamental law, to exclude men from all participation, either of public affairs or domeſtic buſineſs: where female armies marched under female captains, female farmers gathered the harveſt, female partners danced together, and female wits diverted one another. Yet ſeveral ages of antiquity have tranſmitted accounts of the Amazons of Caucaſus; and of the Amazons of America, who have given their name to the greateſt river in the world. Condamine lately found ſuch memorials as can be expected among erratic and unlettered nations, where events are recorded only by tradition, and new ſwarms ſettling in the country from time to time confuſe and efface all traces of former times.

No author has taken ſo much pains upon this ſubject as M. Petit, a French phyſician, who publiſhed a Latin diſſertation in 1685, to prove that there was really a nation of Amazons. It contains abundance of curious enquiries relating to their habit, their arms, the cities built by them, &c. But in the courſe of his work, he has given it as his opinion, that there is great difficulty in governing the women even at preſent, though they are unarmed and unpractiſed in the art of war. After all his elaborate inquiries and diſcuſſions, therefore, this learned writer might probably think, that it is not an evil of the firſt magnitude that the race of Amazons now ceaſes to exiſt.

Rouſſeau ſays, 'the empire of the women is an empire of ſoftneſs, of addreſs, of complacency. Her commands are careſſes, her menaces are tears.' But the empire of the Amazons was certainly an empire of a very different kind, and we agree with Dr. Johnſon, that the character of the Amazons was rather terrible than lovely. The hand could not be very delicate that was only employed in drawing the bow and brandiſhing the battle-axe. Their power was maintained by cruelty, their courage was deformed by ferocity; and their example only ſhows, that men and women live beſt together.

ANECDOTE OF THOMAS EARL OF KILDARE.

THIS Thomas was ſurnamed Nuppagh (i. e. the Ape) on the following account: being only nine months old when his father and grandfather were ſlain by the M'Carties, and nurſed at Tralee, whither the news of their deaths ſuddenly arriving, the nurſes who attended, in their firſt aſtoniſhment, ran out of the houſe, and left the child alone in the cradle, when a baboon or ape, that was kept in the family, took up the infant and carried it to the top of the caſtle, from whence, after bearing it round the battlements, and ſhowing it for ſome time to the aſtoniſhed ſpectators, he brought it down ſafe, and laid it in the cradle.

THE BRITISH MUSE.

To MODESTY.

O GODDESS! ſimply dreſt,
In plain unſtudy'd veſt,
Hating proud Oſtentation's vain attire;
Whoſe gentle timid mien,
And boſom ſcarcely ſeen,
Awaken love and tendereſt deſire!

O Modeſty! the maid,
Who ſeeks thy magic aid,
Though bleſt with Beauty's choiceſt gifts before,
Shall find her charms impart
More rapture to the heart,
Whene'er ſhe ſeems unconſcious of their pow'r.

The eye, whoſe downcaſt beams
No admiration claims,
Seems brighter than the brilliant diamond's blaze;
Not the freſh roſe's hue,
Sparkling with new-fall'n dew,
Can match thoſe bluſhes thou haſt power to raiſe.

When Beauty's roſeate glow,
And breaſt of living ſnow,
Invite the daring touch of fierce deſire;
O Modeſty! appear,
To guard the hapleſs fair,
And with thy tears allay the riſing fire.

Soft Charity, whoſe ſtore
Relieves the ſuppliant poor,
Seeking the wretched haunts of pale diſeaſe:
Yet, wiſely taught by thee,
With ſweet humility,
Beſtows in ſecret, nor ſolicits praiſe.

The warrior, whoſe renown
Contending monarchs own,
While rumour, with ſhrill trumpet ſounds his name;
Though on his waving creſt
Proud Victory ride confeſt,
By thee attended brighter ſhines his fame.

Each talent and each art,
That captivates the heart,
By thee adorn'd, more admiration draws;
And rarely can we find
True merit in the mind,
That ſtrives by vain parade to court applauſe.

Thus, on that favour'd ſhore,
Where flows the golden ore,
With glittering duſt the rolling billows ſhine;
But where high mountains riſe,
Impervious to our eyes,
Exhauſtleſs treaſures form the ſecret mine.

On TIME.

SEE where, along the th' extenſive meads,
Yon copious Flood its current leads;
And ceaſeleſs rolls th' abundant tide,
With like abundance ſtill ſupply'd;
Still in ſucceſſive lapſe the ſame,
A conſtant never-failing Stream:
Long has it flow'd, continues ſo,
And thus ſhall ever ever flow.

So Time, from undiminiſh'd ſtores,
Continual emanation pours:
Hour after hour flies ſwift away,
Succeeding hours their loſs repay;
Day follows day; as tranſient too,
The ſeeming ſlow-born years purſue
And flee: and thus ſhall ever flee
Time that has been, and e'er ſhall be.

While here, O mortal! to remain,
A wanderer on life's deſtin'd plain,
Let this employ thy ſerious thought:
Our moments were not given for nought,
And as with ſpeed, awaiting none,
Time ſtill continues rolling on,
Await not Time; but, as it flies,
Each valued inſtant learn to prize.

ODE to MORNING.

Tranſlated from the Latin of FLAMINIUS, by Mr. GRESWELL.

IN bluſhing beams of ſoften'd light
Aurora ſteals upon the ſight:
With chaſte effulgence dart from far
The ſplendors of her dewy car:
Cheer'd with the view, I bleſs the ray
That mildly ſpeaks returning day.
Retire, ye gloomy ſhades, to ſpread
Your brooding horrors o'er the dead;—
Bane of my ſlumbers, ſpectres gaunt,
Forbear my frighted couch to haunt!
Phantoms of darkneſs, horrid dreams,—
Begone! for lo! fair morning beams.
Emerging from the incumbent ſhade,
Her luſtre cheers the brilliant mead:—
Haſte boy,—the tuneful lyre,—I long
To meet the goddeſs with a ſong;—
Haſte, while the Muſe exerts her powers,
And ſtrew her ſmiling path with flowers.
The violet charg'd with early ſweets,
Fair morn! thy cheerful preſence greets;
The crocus lifts her ſaffron head,
And bloomy ſhrubs their odours ſhed;
Ah! deign our incenſe to inhale
Borne on the gently ſwelling gale.
When morning's charms the ſong inſpire,
Be mine to wake the warbling lyre;

Oh, waft, ye breezes, to her ear
The mingled ſtrains of praiſe and prayer:
Bid her approve our faint eſſays,
And teach the offered gift to pleaſe.
For ah! thy beauties to pourtray,
Fair mother of the infant day,—
What time in mildeſt ſplendours dreſt
Thy lucid form appears confeſt,—
Still muſt the admiring bard deſpair,—
O nymph!—ſuperlatively fair!
Thy crimſon cheeks a bluſh diſcloſe
More vivid than the opening roſe;
Thy ſoftly-waving locks unfold
More luſtre than the burniſh'd gold;
The envious ſtars their lights reſign,
And Luna's beam is loſt in thine.
Mortals had lain, without thine aid,
Ingulph'd in night's perpetual ſhade:
The brighteſt colours but diſplay
A luſtre borrow'd from thy ray;
And every grace that art can boaſt
Without thy genial help were loſt.
Faſt bound in Lethe's dull embrace,
'Tis thine the ſluggard to releaſe;
Thou wak'ſt to life the torpid mind,
To deathful ſlumbers elſe conſign'd;
And pleaſed to ſhare thy tranquil ſmile,
Man with new vigour meets his toil.
Betimes the ſprightly traveller wakes;
The ſturdy ox his ſtall forſakes,
Patient his ſinewy neck to bow
And bear the yoke, and drag the plough;
His fleecy charge the ſhepherd leads
To graze beneath the ſylvan ſhades.
Lull'd in his fair one's gentle arms,
The lover if thy voice alarms;
If with regret the attractive couch
He leaves, and blames thy near approach,
Still let him deem thy call unkind,
And caſt the 'lingering look behind.'
His be the illuſive joys of night;
My boaſt ſhall be the cheerful light:
Give me to watch the orient ray,
And hail the glad return of day;—
And long, oh long—ye powers divine
May ſuch reviving joys be mine.

EPITAPH on THEOBALD AYLWARD, Muſ. D. Gresham Profeſſor of Muſic, who died Feb. 27, 1801, aged 70 Years.

By WILLIAM HAYLEY, Eſq.

AYLWARD, adieu! my pleaſing, gentle friend,
Regret and honour on thy grave attend;
Thy rapid hand, harmonious ſkill poſſeſt,
And moral harmony enrich'd thy breaſt:
For heav'n moſt freely to thy life aſſign'd
Benevolence, the muſic of the mind;
Mild, as thy nature, all thy mortal ſcene,
Thy death was eaſy as thy life ſerene.

HAPPY SOLITUDE.

MY heart is eaſy, and my burden light;
I ſmile, though ſad, when thou art in my ſight:
The more my woes in ſecret I deplore,
I taſte thy goodneſs, and I love, the more.

There, while a ſolemn ſtillneſs reigns around,
Faith, love, and hope, within my ſoul abound;
And while the world ſuppoſe me loſt in care,
The joys of angels, unperceiv'd, I ſhare.

Thy creatures wrong thee, O thou ſov'reign Good!
Thou art not lov'd, becauſe not underſtood;
This grieves me moſt, that vain purſuits beguile
Ungrateful men, regardleſs of thy ſmile.

Frail beauty, and falſe honour, are ador'd;
While Thee they ſcorn, and trifle with thy word;
Paſs, unconcern'd, a Saviour's ſorrows by;
And hunt their ruin, with a zeal to die.

ON FRIENDSHIP.

WHO ſeeks a friend, ſhould come diſpos'd
T' exhibit in full bloom diſclos'd
The graces and the beauties
That form the character he ſeeks,
For 't is an union that beſpeaks
Reciprocated duties.

Mutual attention is implied,
And equal truth on either ſide,
And conſtantly ſupported;
'T is ſenſeleſs arrogance t' accuſe
Another of ſiniſter views,
Our own as much diſtorted.

But will ſincerity ſuffice?
It is indeed above all price,
And muſt be made the baſis;
But ev'ry virtue of the ſoul
Muſt conſtitute the charming whole,
All ſhining in their places.

A fretful temper will divide
The cloſeſt knot that may be tied,
By careleſs ſharp corroſion;
A temper paſſionate and fierce
May ſuddenly your joys diſperſe
At one immenſe exploſion.

In vain the talkative unite
In hopes of permanent delight—
The ſecret juſt committed,
Forgetting its important weight,
They drop through mere deſire to prate,
And by themſelves outwitted.

How bright foe'er the proſpect ſeems,
All thoughts of friendſhip are but dreams
If envy chance to creep in;
An envious man, if you ſucceed,
May prove a dang'rous foe indeed,
But not a friend worth keeping.

As envy pines at good poſſeſs'd,
So jealouſy looks forth diſtreſs'd
On good that ſeems approaching,
And if ſucceſs his ſteps attend,
Diſcerns a rival in a friend,
And hates him for encroaching.

Hence authors of illuſtrious name,
Unleſs belied by common fame,
Are ſadly prone to quarrel,
To deem the wit a friend diſplays
A tax upon their own juſt praiſe,
And pluck each others laurel.

A man renown'd for rapartee
Will ſeldom ſcruple to make free
With friendſhip's fineſt feeling,
Will thruſt a dagger at your breaſt,
And ſay he wounded you in jeſt,
By way of balm for healing.

Whoever keeps an open ear
For tattlers, will be ſure to hear
The trumpet of contention;
Aſperſion is the babler's trade,
To liſten is to lend him aid,
And ruſh into diſcuſſion.

A friendſhip that in frequent fits
Of controverſial rage emits
The ſparks of diſputation,
Like hand in hand inſurance plates,
Moſt unavoidably creates
The thought of conflagration.

Some fickle creatures boaſt a ſoul
True as a needle to the pole;
Their humour yet ſo various,
They manifeſt their whole life through
The needle's deviation too,
Their love is ſo precarious.

The great and ſmall but rarely meet
On terms of amity complete;
Plebeians muſt ſurrender,
And yield ſo much to nobler folk,
It is combining fire with ſmoke,
Obſcurity with ſplendour.

Some are ſo placid and ſerene
(As Iriſh bogs are always green,)
They ſleep ſecure from waking;
And are indeed a bog that bears
Your unparticipated cares
Unmov'd and without quaking.

Courtier and patriot cannot mix
Their heterogeneous politics,
Without an effervescence
Like that of ſalts with lemon-juice,
Which does not yet like that produce
A friendly coaleſcence.

Religion ſhould extinguiſh ſtrife,
And make a calm of human life;
But friends that chance to differ
On points which God has left at large,
How fiercely will they meet and charge,
No combatants are ſtiffer!

To prove at laſt my main intent,
Needs no expence of argument,
No cutting and contriving—
Seeking a real friend, we ſeem
T' adopt the chymiſt's golden dream,
With ſtill leſs hope of thriving.

Sometimes the fault is all our own,
Some blemiſh in due time made known
By treſpaſs or omiſſion;
Sometimes occaſion brings to light
Our friend's defect, long hid from ſight,
And even from ſuſpicion.

Then judge yourſelf, and prove your man
As circumſpectly as you can;
And having made election,
Beware no negligence of yours,
Such as a friend but ill endures,
Enfeeble his affection.

To DISAPPOINTMENT.

O THOU! whoſe withering look,
And peſtilential breath,
Blaſt every glowing flow'r,
That Hope, with laviſh hand, had ſpread
On the dark boſom of Futurity:

O Diſappointment! ſad
And gloomy is the train,
Which on thy ſteps attend:
Sorrow, with flowing eyes, is there,
Repining Diſcontent, and ſick Diſguſt.

If, in my tender youth,
I have already felt
Thy influence ſevere;
Ah! can I hope to 'ſcape thy pow'r,
As farther through life's wilderneſs I ſtray!

Art thou of monſtrous birth
Th' unwelcome fruit of ſin,
And her attendant made;
For, when her fatal joys we taſte,
Still doſt thou lurk behind each gilded ſcene?

Or art thou heaven-deriv'd,
And as a bleſſing ſent,
To teach the ſons of men
On nobler joys to fix their hearts,
And ſigh for realms, where thou can'ſt never dwell?

COPY *of the* CONVENTION *with the Court of* London, *ſigned at* St Peterſburgh, *the* 5*th* (17*th*) *June* 1801.

In the name of the Moſt Holy and Undivided Trinity.

THE mutual deſire of his majeſty the emperor of all the Ruſſias, and of his majeſty the king of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, being not only come to an underſtanding between themſelves with reſpect to the differences which have lately interrupted the good underſtanding and friendly relations which ſubſiſted between the two States; but alſo to prevent, by frank and preciſe explanations upon the navigation of their reſpective ſubjects, the renewal of ſimilar altercations and troubles which might be the conſequence of them; and the object of the ſolicitude of their ſaid majeſties being to ſettle, as ſoon as can be done, an equitable arrangement of thoſe differences, and an invariable determination of their principles upon the rights of neutrality, in their application to their reſpective monarchies, in order to unite more cloſely the ties of friendſhip and good intercourſe, of which they acknowledge the utility and the benefits, have named and choſen for their plenipotentiaries, viz. his majeſty the emperor of all the Ruſſias, the Sieur Niquita, count de Panen, his councellor, &c. and his majeſty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Alleyn, baron St. Helen's, privy councillor, &c. who, after having communicated their full powers, and found them in good and due form, have agreed upon the following points and articles:

Art. I. There ſhall be hereafter between his Imperial majeſty of all the Ruſſias, and his Britannic majeſty, their ſubjects, the ſtates and countries under their domination, good and unalterable friendſhip and underſtanding, and all the political, commercial, and other relations of common utility between the reſpective ſubjects, ſhall ſubſiſt as formerly, without their being diſturbed or troubled in any manner whatever.

II. His majeſty the emperor, and his Britannic majeſty, declare, that they will take the moſt eſpecial care of the execution of the prohibitions againſt the trade of contraband of their ſubjects with the enemies of each of the high contracting parties.

III. His Imperial majeſty of all the Ruſſias, and his Britannic majeſty, having reſolved to place under a ſufficient ſafeguard the freedom of commerce and navigation of their ſubjects, in caſe one of them ſhall be at war, while the other ſhall be neuter, have agreed:

1. That the ſhips of the neutral power ſhall navigate freely to the ports, and upon the coaſts of the nations at war.

2. That the effects embarked on board neutral ſhips ſhall be free, with the exception of contraband of war, and of enemy's property; and it is agreed not to compriſe in the number of the latter, the merchandiſe of the produce, growth, or manufacture of the countries at war, which ſhould have been acquired by the ſubjects of the neutral power, and ſhould be tranſported for their account, which merchandiſe cannot be excepted in any caſe from the freedom granted to the flag of the ſaid power.

3. That in order to avoid all equivocation and miſunderſtanding of what ought to be qualified as contraband of war, his Imperial majeſty of all the Ruſſias, and his Britannic majeſty, declare, conformably to the 11th article of the treaty of commerce concluded between the two crowns on the 10th (21ſt) February, 1797, that they acknowledge as ſuch only the following objects, viz. Cannons, mortars, fire-arms, piſtols, bombs, grenades, balls, bullets, fire-locks, flints, matches, powder, ſaltpetre, ſulphur, helmets, pikes, ſwords, ſword-belts, ſaddles, and bridles, excepting, however, the quantity of the ſaid articles which may be neceſſary for the defence of the ſhip and of thoſe who compoſe the crew; and all other articles whatever, not enumerated here, ſhall not be reputed warlike and naval ammunition, nor be ſubject to confiſcation, and of courſe ſhall paſs freely, without being ſubjected to the ſmalleſt difficulty, unleſs they be conſidered enemy's property in the above ſettled ſenſe. It is alſo agreed, that that which is ſtipulated in the preſent article ſhall not be to the prejudice of the particular ſtipulations of one or the other crown with other powers, by which objects of a ſimilar kind ſhould be reſerved, prohibited, or permitted.

4. That in order to determine what characteriſes a blockaded port, that determination is given only to that where there is, by the diſpoſition of the power which attacks it with ſhips ſtationary, or ſufficiently near, an evident danger in entering.

5. That the ſhips of the neutral power ſhall not be ſtopped but upon juſt cauſes

and evident facts: that they be tried without delay, and that the proceeding be always uniform, prompt, and legal.

In order the better to enſure the reſpect due to theſe ſtipulations, dictated by the ſincere deſire of conciliating all intereſts, and to give a new proof of their loyalty and love of juſtice, the high contracting parties enter here into the moſt formal engagement to renew the ſevereſt prohibitions to their captains, whether of ſhips of war or merchantmen, to take, keep, or conceal on board their ſhips any of the objects which, in the terms of the preſent convention, may be reputed contraband, and reſpectively to take care of the execution of the orders which they ſhall have publiſhed in their admiralties, and wherever it ſhall be neceſſary.

IV. The two high contracting parties, wiſhing to prevent all ſubject of diſſenſion in future by limiting the right of ſearch of merchant ſhips going under convoy to the ſole cauſes in which the belligerent power may experience a real prejudice by the abuſe of the neutral flag, have agreed,

1. That the right of ſearching merchant ſhips belonging to ſubjects of one of the contracting powers, and navigating under convoy of a ſhip of war of the ſaid power, ſhall only be exerciſed by ſhips of war of the belligerent party, and ſhall never extend to the fitters out of privateers, or other veſſels, which do not belong to the Imperial or royal fleet of their majeſties, but which their ſubjects ſhall have fitted out for war.

2. That the proprietors of all merchant ſhips belonging to the ſubjects of one of the contracti g ſovereigns, which ſhall be deſtined to ſail under convoy of a ſhip of war, ſhall be required, before they receive the r ſailing orders, to produce to the commander of the convoy their paſſports and certificates, or ſea-letters, in the form annexed to the preſent treaty.

3. That when ſuch ſhip of war, and every merchant ſhip under convoy, ſhall be met with by a ſhip or ſhips of war of the other contracting party, who ſhall then be in a ſtate of war, in order to avoid all diſorder, they ſhall keep out of cannon ſhot, unleſs the ſituation of the ſea, or the place of meeting, render a nearer approach neceſſary: and the commander of a ſhip of the belligerent power ſhall ſend a ſloop on board the convoy, where they ſhall proceed reciprocally to the verification of the papers and certificates that are to prove on one part, that the ſhip of war is authoriſed to take under its eſcort ſuch or ſuch merchant ſhips of its nation, laden with ſuch a cargo, and for ſuch a port: on the other part, that the ſhip of war of the belligerent party belongs to the Imperial or royal fleet of their majeſties.

4. This verification made, there ſhall be no pretence for any ſearch, if the papers are found in due form, and if their exiſts no good motive for ſuſpicion. In the contrary caſe, the captain of the neutral ſhip of war (being duly required thereto by the captain of the ſhip or ſhips of war of the belligerent power) is to bring to and detain his convoy during the time neceſſary for the ſearch of the ſhips which compoſe it, and he ſhall have the faculty of naming and delegating one or more officers to aſſiſt at the ſearch of the ſaid ſhips, which ſhall be done in his preſence on board each merchant ſhip conjointly with one or more officers ſelected by the captain of the ſhip of the belligerent party.

5. If it happen that the captain of the ſhip or ſhips of war of the power at war, having examined the papers found on board, and having interrogated the maſter and crew of the ſhip, ſhall ſee juſt and ſufficient reaſon to detain the merchant ſhip in order to proceed to an ulterior ſearch, he ſhall notify that intention to the captain of the convoy, who ſhall have the power to order an officer to remain on board the ſhip thus detained, and to aſſiſt at the examination of the cauſe of her detention. The merchant ſhip ſhall be carried immediately to the nearer and moſt convenient port belonging to the belligerent power, and the ulterior ſearch ſhall be carried on with all poſſible diligence.

V. It is alſo agreed, that if any merchant ſhip thus convoyed ſhould be detained without juſt and ſufficient cauſe, the commander of the ſhip or ſhips of war of the belligerent power ſhall not only be bound to make to the owners of the ſhip and of the cargo a full and perfect compenſation for all the loſſes, expences, damages, and coſts, occaſioned by ſuch a detention, but ſhall further be liable to an ulterior puniſhment for every act of violence or other fault which he may have committed, according as the nature of the caſe may require. On the other hand, no ſhip of war with a convoy ſhall be permitted, under any pretext whatſoever, to reſiſt by force the detention of a merchant ſhip or ſhips by the ſhip or ſhips of war of the belligerent power; an obligation which the commander of a ſhip of war with convoy is not bound to obſerve toward privateers and their fitters out.

VI. The high contracting powers ſhall give preciſe and efficacious orders that the ſentences upon prizes made at ſea ſhall be conformable with the rules of the moſt exact juſtice and equity; that they ſhall be given by judges above ſuſpicion, and who ſhall not be intereſted in the matter. The government of the reſpective ſtates ſhall take care that the ſaid ſentences ſhall be promptly and duly executed, according to the forms preſcribed. In caſe of the unfounded detention, or other contravention of the regulations ſtipulated by the preſent treaty, the owners of ſuch ſhip and cargo ſhall be allowed damages proportioned to the loſs occaſioned by ſuch detention. The rules to obſerve for theſe damages, and for the caſe of unfounded detention; as alſo the principles to follow for the purpoſe of accelerating the proceſs, ſhall be the matter of additional articles, which the contracting parties agree to ſettle between them, and which ſhall have the ſame force and validity as if they were inſerted in the preſent act. For this effect, their Imperial and Britannic majeſties mutually engage to put their hand to the ſalutary work, which may ſerve for the completion of theſe ſtipulations, and to communicate to each other without delay the views which may be ſuggeſted to them by their equal ſolicitude to prevent the leaſt grounds for diſpute in future.

VII. To obviate all the inconveniences which may ariſe from the bad faith of thoſe who avail themſelves of the flag of a nation without belonging to it, it is agreed to eſtabliſh for an inviolable rule, that any veſſel whatever to be conſidered as the property of the country the flag of which it carries, muſt have on board the captain of the ſhip, and one half of the crew of the people of that country, and the papers and paſſports in due and perfect form; but every veſſel which ſhall not obſerve this rule, and which ſhall infringe the ordinance publiſhed on that head, ſhall loſe all rights to the protection of the contracting powers.

VIII. The principles and meaſures adopted by the preſent act ſhall be alike applicable to all the maritime wars in which one of the two powers may be engaged whilſt the other remains neutral. Theſe ſtipulations ſhall in conſequence be regarded as permanent, and ſhall ſerve for a conſtant rule to the contracting powers in matters of commerce and navigation.

IX. His majeſty the king of Denmark, and his majeſty the king of Sweden, ſhall be immediately invited by his Imperial majeſty, in the name of the two contracting parties, to accede to the preſent convention, and at the ſame time to renew and confirm their reſpective treaties of commerce with his Britannic majeſty; and his ſaid majeſty engages, by acts which ſhall have eſtabliſhed that agreement, to render and reſtore to each of theſe powers, all the prizes that have been taken from them, as well as the territories and countries under their domination, which have been conquered by the arms of his Britannic majeſty ſince the rupture, in the ſtate in which thoſe poſſeſſions were found at the period at which the troops of his Britannic majeſty entered them. The orders of his ſaid majeſty for the reſtitution of thoſe prizes and conqueſts ſhall be immediately expedited after the exchange of the ratifications of the acts by which Sweden and Denmark ſhall accede to the preſent treaty.

X. The preſent convention ſhall be ratified by the two contracting parties, and the ratifications exchanged at St. Peterſburgh in the ſpace of two months at furtheſt, from the day of the ſignature. In faith of which, the reſpective plenipotentiaries have cauſed to be made two copies perfectly ſimilar, ſigned with their hands, and have ſealed with their arms.

Done at St. Peterſburgh the 5th (17th of June), 1801.

(L. S.) N. COUNT DE PANEN.
(L. S.) ST. HELEN'S.

Formula of the Paſſports and Sea Letters which ought to be delivered in the reſpective Admiralties of the States of the two High Contracting Parties to the Ships of War and Merchant Veſſels which ſhall ſail from them, conformable to Article 4, of the preſent Treaty.

Be it known that we have given leave and permiſſion to N—, of the city and place of N—, maſter or conductor of the ſhip N—, belonging to N—, of the port of N—, of — tons or thereabouts, now laying in the port or harbour of N—, to ſail from thence to N—, laden with N—, on account of N—, after the ſaid ſhip ſhall have been viſited before its departure in the uſual manner by the officers appointed for that purpoſe; and the ſaid N—, or ſuch other as ſhall be veſted with powers to replace him, ſhall be obliged to produce in every port or harbour which he ſhall enter with the ſaid veſſel to the officers of the place the preſent licence, and to carry the flag of N— during his voyage.

In faith of which, &c.

Copy of the firſt ſeparate Article of the Convention with the Court of London, ſigned the 5th (17th) of June, 1801.

The pure and magnanimous intentions of his majeſty the emperor of all the Ruſſias having already induced him to reſtore the veſſels and goods of Britiſh ſubjects, which had been ſequeſtered in Ruſſia, his ſaid majeſty confirms that diſpoſition in its whole extent; and his Britannic majeſty engages alſo to give immediately orders for taking off all ſequeſtration laid upon the Ruſſian, Daniſh, and Swediſh properties, detained in Engliſh ports; and to prove ſtill more his ſincere deſire to terminate amicably the differences which have ariſen between Great Britain and the Northern Courts, and in order that no new incident may throw obſtacles in the way of this ſalutary work, his Britannic majeſty binds himſelf to give orders to the commanders of his forces by land and ſea, that the armiſtice now ſubſiſting with the courts of Denmark and Sweden ſhall be prolonged for a term of three months from the date of this day; and his majeſty the emperor of all the Ruſſias, guided by the ſame motives, undertakes, in the name of his allies, to have this armiſtice maintained during the ſaid term.

This ſeparate article, &c.
In faith of which, &c.

Copy of the ſecond ſeparate Article of the Convention with the Court of London, ſigned at St. Peterſburgh the 5th (17th) of June, 1801.

The differences and miſunderſtandings which ſubſiſted between his majeſty the emperor of all the Ruſſias, and his majeſty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, being thus terminated, and the precautions taken by the preſent convention not giving further room to fear that they may be able to diſturb in future the harmony and good underſtanding which the two high contracting parties have at heart to conſolidate, their ſaid majeſties confirm anew, by the preſent convention, the treaty of commerce of the 10th (Feb. 21, 1797), of which all the ſtipulations are here repeated, to be maintained in their whole extent.

This ſeparate article, &c.
In faith of which, &c.

TREATY BETWEEN SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

Madrid, Auguſt 8.

THE following is the treaty of peace concluded between Spain and Portugal:

As the object which his Catholic majeſty had in view, and which he conſidered as neceſſary for the good of Europe, when he declared war againſt Portugal, is obtained, his majeſty has reſolved, after conferences had, to reſtore and renew the bonds of friendſhip and good underſtanding by means of a treaty of peace; and the plenipotentiaries of the three Belligerent powers having met together, have agreed to conclude two treaties, which in their eſſential parts will be but one; as the guarantee will be interchangeable, and will ceaſe with reſpect to both when either ſhall be infringed. To carry into full effect this important object, his catholic majeſty the king of Spain, and his royal highneſs the prince of Portugal and Algarve, have granted their full powers, as follows; namely, his catholic majeſty the king of Spain, to his excellency don Manuel de Godoy Alvarez de Faria Rios Sanchez y Zargoza, prince of Peace, lieutenant of Alcudia, lord of Soto di Roma and of the diſtricts of Albala, count of Everamonto, grandee of Spain of the firſt claſs, perpetual governor of the city of Madrid, and of the towns of Santiago, Cadiz, Malaga, and Ecija, knight of the illuſtrious order of the Golden Fleece, Grand Croſs of the diſtinguiſhed Spaniſh order of Charles III, commander of Valencia, del Ventoſo, Rivera, &c. Grand Croſs of the order of St. John, counſellor of ſtate, chamberlain, generaliſſimo, and captain general of the armies of his Catholic majeſty, and colonel general of the Swiſs troops, &c. and his royal highneſs the regent of Portugal and Algarve, to his excellency Louis Pinto de Souza Contintro, counſellor of ſtate, Grand Croſs of the order of Aviz, knight of the illuſtrious order of the Golden Fleece, miniſter and ſecretary of ſtate for the affairs of the kingdom, and lieutenant general of its armies; who, after having exchanged and verified their full powers in good and proper form, have concluded and ſigned, according to the orders and intentions of their ſovereigns, the following articles:

Article I. There ſhall be peace, amity and good underſtanding between his Catholic majeſty the king of Spain and the prince regent of Portugal and Algarve, as well by ſea as land, through the whole extent of their kingdoms and poſſeſſions; and all captures which ſhall be made by

ſea, after the ratification of the preſent treaty, ſhall be faithfully reſtored, with all their goods and effects, or their reſpective value paid.

II. His royal highneſs will ſhut the ports of his whole territories againſt the ſhips of Great Britain in general.

III. His Catholic majeſty will reſtore to his royal highneſs the fortreſſes and places of Juromena, Arrouches, Porralegre, Caſtel Davide, Barbacenas, Campo Major, and Ouguela, with all the territories hitherto conquered by his arms, or which may hereafter be conquered, with all their artillery, fire-arms, or other warlike ſtores, and in the ſame condition in which they were when they were ſurrendered to him: and his Catholic majeſty will take as a conqueſt the fortreſs of Olivenza, with its territory and inhabitants, from the Guadina, and unite the ſame for ever to his own territory and ſubjects, ſo that the river abovementioned ſhall be the boundary of the reſpective kingdoms in that part.

IV. His royal highneſs the prince regent of Portugal and Algarve, will not permit any depots of prohibited and contraband goods, which may be prejudicial to the intereſts of the crown of Spain, to be formed on the frontiers of his kingdom, excluſive of ſuch as appertain to the revenues of the crown of Portugal, or are neceſſary for the conſumption of the reſpective territory in which they are eſtabliſhed; and if this or any other article ſhall not be maintained, the treaty which is now concluded between the three powers, including the interchangeable guarantee, ſhall be null and void, as is expreſſed in the articles of the preſent treaty.

V. His royal highneſs will immediately repair and make good all damages or injuries which the ſubjects of his Catholic majeſty may have ſuſtained during the preſent war, from the ſhips of Great Britain or the ſubjects of the court of Portugal, and for which they can rightfully claim indemnification; and in like manner his Catholic majeſty engages to make ſuitable ſatisfaction for all captures which may have been made by the Spaniards before the preſent war, in violation of or within a cannot-ſhot of the Portugueſe territory.

VI. Within the ſpace of three months, reckoning from the ratification of the preſent treaty, his royal highneſs will pay to the treaſury of his Catholic majeſty the expences left unpaid when they withdrew from the war with France, and which were occaſioned by the ſame, according to the eſtimate given in by the ambaſſador of his Catholic majeſty, or which may be given in anew; with the exception, however, of any error that may be found in the ſaid eſtimates.

VII. As ſoon as the preſent treaty ſhall be ſigned, all hoſtilities ſhall ceaſe on both ſides within twenty-four hours, without any contributions or requiſitions being laid after that time on any of the conquered places, except ſuch as may be allowed to friendly troops in time of peace; and as ſoon as this treaty ſhall be ratified, the Spaniſh troops ſhall leave the Portugueſe territory within ſix days, and ſhall begin their march within ſix hours, after receiving notice, without offering any violence or injury to the inhabitants in their way, and they ſhall pay for whatever may be neceſſary for them, according to the current price of the country.

VIII. All priſoners which may have been taken by ſea and land, ſhall, within fifteen days after the ratification of the preſent treaty, be ſet at liberty, and delivered up on both ſides; and at the ſame time, all debts which they may have contracted during their impriſonment, ſhall be paid. The ſick and wounded ſhall remain in the reſpective hoſpitals, there to be taken care of, and in like manner delivered up as ſoon as they ſhall be able to begin their march.

IX. His Catholic majeſty engages to guarantee to his royal highneſs the prince regent of Portugal, the entire poſſeſſion of all his ſtates and poſſeſſions, without the leaſt exception or reſerve.

X. The two high contracting parties engage to renew the treaty of defenſive alliance which exiſted between the two monarchies, but with ſuch clauſes and alterations as the connections entered into by the Spaniſh monarchy with the French republic may demand; and in the ſame treaty ſhall be regulated what aid ſhall be mutually afforded ſhould neceſſity require.

XI. The preſent treaty ſhall be ratified within ten days after it is ſigned, or ſooner, if poſſible. In witneſs of this, we, the underſigned miniſters plenipotentiary, have ſubſcribed the preſent treaty with our own hands, and ſealed it with our arms.

Done at Badajos, June 6, 1801.

(L. S.) THE PRINCE OF PEACE.

(L. S.) LOUIS PINTO DE SOUZA.

NAVAL INTELLIGENCE.

From the London Gazette, Sept. 12.

Admiralty Office, Sept. 12.

Extract of a Letter from Rear Admiral Sir James Saumarez, to Evan Nepean, Eſq. dated in Roſia Bay, the 26th July.

I HEREWITH incloſe capt. Hood's report of the Venerable's very gallant action with the French ſhip Formidable, the morning of the 13th inſtant; and alſo the returns of killed and wounded.

His Majeſty's Ship Venerable,

Sir, at Sea, 13th July.

You muſt have obſerved my giving chaſe to an enemy's line of battle ſhip at day-break, this morning, at ſeven; he hoiſted French colours, and I could perceive her to be an 80 gun ſhip; at half-paſt, being within point-black ſhot, the enemy commenced firing his ſtern chaſe guns, which I did not return for fear of retarding our progreſs, until the light and baffling airs threw the two ſhips broadſide-to, within muſket ſhot, when a ſteady and warm conflict was kept up for an hour and a half, and we had cloſed within piſtol ſhot, the enemy principally directing his fire to our maſts and rigging. I had at this time the misfortune to perceive the main-maſt to fall overboard, the fore and mizen maſt nearly in the ſame ſtate, and ſince gone, the ſhip being near the ſhore cloſe to the Caſtle of Sancti Petri, the enemy eſcaped. It was with much difficulty I was enabled to get the Venerable off, her cables and anchors all diſabled, and it was only by the great exertion of the Thames, with the boats you ſent me, ſhe was ſaved, after being on ſhore for ſome time.

I ſhall have no occaſion to comment on the bravery of the officers and ſhip's company in this action, who had with much patience and perſeverance ſuffered great fatigue by their exertions to get the ſhip to ſea, and not 500 men able to go to quarters; but I beg leave to add, I have been moſt ably ſupported by lieutenant Lillicrap, ſecond of the Venerable, (firſt abſent) all the other officers and men, who have my warmeſt recommendation, and have to lament the loſs of Mr. Williams, maſter, an excellent officer, with many other valuable people killed and wouned; a liſt of which I have the honour to encloſe.

I am, &c. S. HOOD.

Sir James Saumarez, Bart. &c.

A Liſt of killed and wounded in Action with a French ſhip of Eighty Guns, on the 23d July.

Mr. John Williams, maſter; 15 ſeamen, 2 marines, killed.

Mr. Thomas Church, lieutenant; Mr. John Snell, boatſwain; Mr. George Meſſey and Mr. Charles Pardoe, midſhipmen; 73 ſeamen, 10 marines, wounded.

SAMUEL HOOD, Captain.

SHIPS captured from the ENEMY.

THREE gun boats, and a flat boat, deſtroyed, two launches taken, by the boats of the Jamaica, &c.

L'Eveille, two guns, by the Atalante.

El Neptuna, 20 guns, and a gun boat, by the Fiſgard, &c.

La Galga, Spaniſh frigate, 24 guns, by the Intrepid.

El Golodrina, two guns, and El Atamaria, ſeven guns, by the Paſley.

HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.

AUGUST 27.

POPE'S WILLOW.

THE following is ſtated as the origin of this famed relic of our favourite bard.—The famous and admired weeping willow planted by Pope, is at length fell to the ground; it has been long decaying, yet the axe ſtill lingered, but at length the fatal ſtroke was given.—It came from Spain, incloſing a preſent to the late lady Suffolk, who came over with George II, and queen Caroline, and was a favourite of both, particularly ſo of the king. Mr. Pope was in company when the covering was taken off the preſent: he obſerved the pieces of ſticks appeared as if there was ſome vegetation, and added, 'Perhaps they may produce ſomething we have not in England.'—Under this idea he planted it in his garden, and it produced the willow tree that has given birth to ſo many others.

AUGUST 28.

The following is an account of a curious experiment for lifting ſhips in dock to put in a new keel, which was tried for the firſt time on the Canopus, of eighty-four guns, in Plymouth-dock, by Mr. Sibbins, the builder's firſt aſſiſtant: by means of wedges driven againſt the blocks on each ſide the keel, and the uſe of the catapulta, or battering ram, applied to them,

the blocks are forced out much eaſier and with leſs danger. Fewer ſhores are required to ſupport the ſhip, which alſo ſtrains leſs, and hangs as it were in ſlings: by this ſimple operation forty men in twelve hours can perform as much work as uſed to take, on the old principle, three hundred men three days; although ſome ſhips in the old method of knocking out the blocks under the keel, have ſettled from eight to ten inches, the Canopus only ſettled one quarter of an inch by this new method. A numerous concourſe of artiſts and others attended to ſee the experiment tried on the Canopus, and were ſatisfied with its uſefulneſs and ſimplicity.

AUGUST 29.

Thomas Lovett was brought to Bow-ſtreet, charged by William Taylor, eſq. proprietor of the Opera houſe, with poſting up bills without the printer's name, headed with very large letters, 'Opera Houſe Creditors.'—The charge being proved, the magiſtrates convicted him in the penalty of 20l, which he not being able to pay, they ſentenced him to three months impriſonment.—This is the firſt conviction under the act of parliament,

SEPTEMBER 3.

Yeſterday, a court of directors was held at the Eaſt India houſe, when Charles Mills, eſq. was elected chairman, in the room of David Scott, eſq. who reſigned that ſituation; John Roberts, eſq. was elected deputy chairman in the year 1776.

SEPTEMBER 5.

A court martial was held at Portſmouth on Tueſday, on captain Ferris and the officers of his majeſty's late ſhip Hannibal, to inquire into the cauſes of the loſs of that ſhip in the action with a French ſquadron in Algeziras Bay. The reſult was a moſt honourable acquittal to captain Ferris and his officers, who, with the ſhip's company, were complimented in the moſt handſome manner by admiral Holloway (the preſident) upon the heroic bravery which they diſplayed on that occaſion.

The following intereſting particulars were related by captain Ferris to the court martial:

Mr. Preſident, and Gentlemen of the Court,

In giving a detail of the circumſtances which led to the loſs of his majeſty's late ſhip the Hannibal, then under my command, I am ſorry that, owing to my clerk being killed, and whoſe remarks were loſt, I cannot be ſo particular as to the exact times of ſignals being made as I otherwiſe ſhould have been; but I ſhall ſtate them to you to the beſt of my recollection.

On the morning of the 6th of July laſt, at or about ſix o'clock, his majeſty's ſhips Venerable, Pompée, Audacious, Cæſar, Spencer, and Hannibal, under the command of rear-admiral ſir James Saumarez, being off Cabaretta Point, and ſtanding in for Algeziras Bay, upon the larboard tack, with the wind weſterly, the admiral made the ſignal to the Venerable, to know if ſhe could fetch the ſhips then in ſight in that bay, which being anſwered in the affirmative, the admiral made the ſignal for cloſe action.

At about eight o'clock the Venerable began the action a conſiderable diſtance to leeward, as ſhe could not fetch further into the bay; and ſoon after the Pompée anchored nearer in ſhore, and the Audacious aſtern of her. The admiral in the Cæſar, next anchored ahead of the Audacious, and made the ſignal for ſhips to anchor in the beſt poſſible manner for their mutual ſupport. We then anchored ahead of the Cæſar, within hail of her, and by a ſpring got our broadſide to bear on one of the enemy's line of battle ſhips, at about ten minutes before nine o'clock, where we kept up a good fire for about an hour.

At this time, about ten o'clock, not having underſtood ſome verbal directions attempted to be given from the Cæſar, I received an order from the admiral, by an officer, to go and take the French admiral. I inſtantly turned up the hands to make ſail, cut the cable, and caſt the ſhip by the ſpring. I then cut the ſpring, and made ſail to the northward, ſtood into a quarter-leſs ſix, and then tacked for the French admiral, for the purpoſe I had been ordered to effect.

As I approached him, I began to take in ſail in ſuch a manner as would have enabled me to have hauled in ſhore athwart his hawſe, and which I preferred to going to leeward under his ſtern, as that might have ſubjected me, from the variable flaws of wind, to have drifted farther to leeward, and conſequently without fulfilling, in a manner which I deemed the moſt effectual and deciſive, the object of my orders. But, juſt as I got the fore clew garnets manned, in order to taken in the fore-ſail, with an intent to put the helm a-lee, and to brace the head yards a-box, the ſhip took the ground, within hail of the Formidable (the French admiral's ſhip,) and which accident alone could have prevented me from putting my orders into execution.

In this ſituation I opened my fire on the French admiral, with as many of my foremaſt guns as could be brought to bear on him, the reſt being directed, with much effect, on the town, batteries, and gun-boats, with which I was ſurrounded. But the ſhip appearing to ſwing a little, I ſet go the bower anchor, and cut the cable, the ſtream cable being clenched to the ring of the anchor, and in at the gun-room port, on which I intended to heave a ſtrain, to endeavour to force the ſhip round, ſo as to bring her broadſide to bear on the French admiral (having at this time no hope of getting the ſhip entirely aſloat, the maſter having, by my directions, ſounded round her, and found rather leſs water then were ſhe lay) but the ſpring being ſhot away before it was well taught, the ſhip remained immoveable. I had, by this time, after much endeavour, (all my ſignal haul-yards being ſhot away) effected making the ſignal for ſtriking, and ſticking faſt on the ſhoal.

I obſerved ſome time afterward all our ſhips driving out of the bay, the admiral having previouſly made my ſignal of recall, and ſent a boat from the Cæſar, and another from the Venerable, to my aſſiſtance; but finding they could afford me none, I ſent the Venerable's boat back, and the crew of the Cæſar's in one of my own cutters, their pinnace having been ſunk by a ſhot alongſide.

About twelve o'clock our ſhips were all out of gun ſhot of the enemy, and we had the fire of the whole French ſquadron, batteries, and gun-boats, to contend with alone; againſt which we continued to keep up as briſk a fire as could be expected, even by men in the moſt ſanguine expectation of victory, until nearly two o'clock.

I had been before this time receiving repeated reports from ſeveral of my officers of the numbers killed and wounded, and of many of my guns being rendered unſerviceable, and ſeeing many of my brave crew every moment falling at their quarters, and the ſhip, in all reſpects, but little better than a wreck, I thought proper to call my officers together, and aſked their opinion whether more could be done for the preſervation of the ſhip; they replied, that they thought it was impoſſible to do more, and that to ſtrike the colours was the the only means of preſerving the lives of thoſe that remained.

On theſe conſiderations, and from a conviction of having experienced every poſſible aſſiſtance that the perſevering endeavours of zealous and brave officers and men could afford me, whoſe exertions, and thoſe of lieutenant Hill's in particular, who did duty as my firſt lieutenant during the action, and for ſome time before, I ſhall ever remember with the greateſt gratitude; and ſeeing that our hitherto very effective fire on the enemy's ſhips and batteries was now ſo ſlackened as to be nearly uſeleſs, I ordered the firing to ceaſe, and the people to ſhelter themſelves as much as poſſible; and in a little time afterward I ſubmitted to the painful neceſſity of ordering his majeſty's colours to be hauled down.

SEPTEMBER 7.

On Monday laſt, died ſuddenly, aged 103, Mr. Joſhua Dixon, of Downton, Wiltſhire. By his two wives he had a numerous family; his eldeſt daughter, now living, is upward of ſeventy years of age, and his youngeſt child only eighteen. He was a remarkably free liver, and, from his own account, had drunk in the courſe of his life, upward of 2000 gallons of brandy, beſide other liquors; he enjoyed his faculties to the laſt.

A copy of the following letter has been generally circulated among the clergy:

My Lord, Whitehall, Aug. 17.

The correct and ſatisfactory information which his majeſty's government obtained from the clergy, relative to the ſtate of the laſt year's crops of grain, induces me to ſolicit the aſſiſtance and good offices of your lordſhip, and other prelates of our church, in procuring in like manner, and through the ſame reſpectable channel, a ſtatement of the number of acres of wheat, barley, oats, potatoes, turnips, rape, peaſe and beans, ſince the laſt harveſt, in the ſeveral pariſhes in England and Wales.

In order to abridge as much as poſſible the trouble which this requeſt will impoſe on ſuch of the clergy in your dioceſe as ſhall be prevailed on to undertake it, I incloſe, in a ſeparate cover, returns, with columns ready to be filled up with the number of acres ſown with each particular ſpecies of grain, and other crops therein ſpecified.

It has occurred to his majeſty's confidential ſervants, that if they could be furniſhed, through the favour and aſſiſtance of the clergy, with an annual return of the deſcription I have mentioned, it would be a circumſtance highly beneficial to the public intereſts, as it would form the beſt criterion whereby to judge of the effects which the proviſions of parliament, both

in regard to inclosures and other matters, produce on the agriculture of this country.

I have the honour to be, &c.

PELHAM.

The lord biſhop of Chicheſter.

SEPTEMBER 10.

At the court at Weymouth, the 7th of September 1801, preſent, the King's moſt excellent Majeſty in Council.

His majeſty, in council, was this day pleaſed to order that the parliament, which ſtands prorogued to Tueſday the 15th day of September, ſhould be further prorogued to Thurſday, the 22d day of October next.—*Lon. Gaz.*

SEPTEMBER 14.

On Monday morning, at ſix o'clock, a ſmart ſhock of an earthquake was diſtinctly felt at Edinburgh, Leith, and the neighbourhood. It continued two or three ſeconds. It was preceded by a rumbling, ruſhing, hollow noiſe from the ground. It had a tremulous, undulating motion, ſomething reſembling the motion of the waves of the ſea. Beds, tables, chairs, &c. ſhook violently in ſome houſes, and the ſhaking reſembled the rocking of a cradle. Some perſons who felt it had a very diſagreeable ſenſation, attended with a head ach. We have heard of no damage being done. The morning was gloomy, warm, and calm; the barometer high, and the thermometer about 50.

The following intereſting communication is dated Comrie, near Crieff, Sept. 9. —'Upon ſabbath and Monday laſt, we were greatly alarmed with ſeveral very ſevere ſhocks of an earthquake, accompanied with a loud ſubterranean noiſe. The firſt ſhock happened at near one o'clock P. M. and about the concluſion of our morning ſervice. The congregation were thrown into great conſternation. It was followed by another ſlight ſhock and ſeveral hollow ſounds. We had another about break of day on Monday, but the one that happened at a quarter after ſix, that ſame morning, was very great and alarming beyond expreſſion. The earth, the great mountains around this village, and the houſes, trembled like a balance for about the ſpace of a minute. Slates fell from ſome houſes, and many looſe bodies tumbled down with great precipitation. Pieces of ſtone dykes fell, and one bank of earth ſlid from its place. If the ſhock had had a little more force, it is probable ſeveral frail houſes would have been thrown down, but, in the kindneſs of Providence, no farther harm has been done than what is above ſtated. The noiſe was very loud and alarming, and reſembled the ſound of bodies cruſhed upon each other. It ſeemed to a congregation that were in the fields on Loch Tay ſide, like diſtant thunder, but in our church it had no ſuch reſemblance. The one on ſabbath was felt all over Breadalbane, a great way eaſt of Strathern.—Theſe earthquakes have viſited this place, with more or leſs violence, ſince Auguſt 1789, and generally happen at the full moon, or at the change: before, or at the time they happen, the air is hazy, and the clouds ſeem charged with the electrical fluid. The wind commonly blows from the north, and during the ſhock makes an awful pauſe, and then blows with greater violence than before. For ſeveral nights before the late earthquakes, the ſky was almoſt as clear as if we had moonlight. The Aurora Borealis was very vivid, and the electric fluid ſeemed to be waving between every cloud all over the horizon.

SEPTEMBER 15.

The following is a copy of the form of prayer which was read on Sunday in all the churches of the united kingdom, to return thanks to the Almighty for the late bountiful harveſt. It is to be read again during Divine Worſhip the three enſuing Sundays:

'O Almighty Lord God! wonderful in operation, infinite in wiſdom, power, and goodneſs; terrible in thy judgments, but abundant in loving kindneſs and mercy—Thou turneſt the fruitful land into barrenneſs for the wickedneſs of them that dwell therein: and again Thou commandeſt the water to ſpring into the dry ground, and the vallies to ſtand thick with corn. We, thine unworthy ſervants, the people of this ſinful nation, offer unto Thee our praiſes, and thankſgivings, for that Thou haſt vouchſafed to remove far from us the fear of dearth and famine; cauſing, by thy bleſſing, the fields, which we had ſown, to yield in overflowing abundance their various fruits of increaſe; and, in thy goodneſs, ſo ordering the ſeaſons, that we have joyfully reaped and gathered into our barns. Not unto us, O Lord! not unto us, but unto thy name, be the praiſe. We acknowledge that we had merited the ſeverity of thy wrath; but Thou in judgment thinkeſt upon mercy, and wouldeſt not the death of a ſinner, but that ſinners turn from their evil ways and live. Give us grace, O Lord, to employ the gifts of thy bounty to thy glory—neither ſquandering them in riot and luxury, nor hoarding them, from

greedineſs of ſordid gain; but grant, that with hearts full of thankfulneſs to Thee, the Giver of all Good, we may uſe them with temperance for the ſupply of our own wants; and diſpenſe them with liberality for the relief and comfort of the poor; and make us ever to be mindful, that a man's life conſiſteth not in the abundance of the things that he poſſeſſeth, and that he liveth not by bread alone, but by every word that proceedeth out of the mouth of Thee, his God; that ſo, while we pray daily unto Thee, as thou haſt commanded, for the periſhable meat of this world, we may ceaſe not to labour more earneſtly for that which endureth unto everlaſting life, which thou haſt given us by thy Son, Jeſus Chriſt, our Lord, to whom, with the Father and the Holy Ghoſt, be all honour and glory, world without end. Amen.

SEPTEMBER 17.

Yeſterday, at the Old Bailey, the ſeſſions of oyer and terminer, and general gaol delivery, for the city of London and county of Middleſex, began before Mr. juſtice Le Blanc, Mr. baron Hotham, the lord-mayor, aldermen, recorder, and other city officers.

SEPTEMBER 18.

Clerical Impoſtor.—The pariſh of St. Martin's in the Fields, has been thrown into the greateſt conſternation by the diſcovery that a young man, acting as clergyman of the pariſh, and deputy of the curate, during his indiſpoſition, is a groſs impoſtor, never having been in orders, or connected with the holy profeſſion. He has married a great many couples, whoſe marriages are conſequently void, and the parties have again an opportunity to chooſe, after trying each other's tempers. This impoſtor has actually officiated a month for the curate of St. Martin's church. He is the ſon of an eminent currier, in Crooked-lane. He had ingenuity enough to introduce himſelf to Mr. Fell, the curate, as a countryman of his (Yorkſhire) ſaying, he was nephew to lord Eldon, and had been in orders near twelve months, having been ordained by the biſhop of Peterborough. Mr. Fell, ſtruck with the rank of his viſitor, paid him every mark of reſpect, expreſſed how much he felt honoured by the preference ſhewn to him, and accepted the proffered aſſiſtance the more readily, being at the time in ill health. Every thing was ſettled, and the pretended nephew of lord Eldon entered into his clerical duty the next day, by performing the marriage ceremony over nineteen couple, adminiſtering the ſacrament to four perſons, chriſtening ſeveral, and burying twelve. In a converſation the the next day, with his clerk, he ſaid, that he was educated at Queen's college, Cambridge, where he had taken his degree of Bachelor of Arts, about a month ſince. On the Saturday following, he went to a mercer's ſhop in Holywell-ſtreet, in the Strand, and ordered a ſet of canonicals, to be made by four o'clock in the afternoon; in the interim, he borrowed a ſet, told the ſhopkeeper his name was Smith, and that he was chaplain to lord Eldon. The mercer took the trouble to call at lord Eldon's, to make the enquiry, when the ſteward informed him, no perſon of the name of Smith was engaged by his lordſhip in that capacity. In conſequence of this information, the mercer called on his way back on the deputy curate of St. Martin's, and ſaw Mr. Smith in the veſtry, when he told him, he had an opportunity of diſpoſing of the ſet of canonicals he had lent him in the morning; but, to prevent Mr. Smith's being put to any inconvenience, he ſhould have the ſet he had ordered by three o'clock preciſely. By this fineſſe, the mercer got back his goods. This new ſpecies of depredation might have continued a ſhort time longer, had not a forged draft expoſed the character of the party, and occaſioned an enquiry, from which we learn, that the hero in queſtion was educated at Peckham ſchool, and has been employed as a rider to a wholeſale houſe in the city. This affair has thrown St. Martin's pariſh into much confuſion. During the time this impoſtor officiated as a prieſt, he was very attentive to duty, read prayers morning and afternoon: with adminiſtering the ſacrament, attending chriſtenings, burials, marriages, &c. his time was wholly taken up. The above impoſtor is only twenty-three years of age, middle ſtature, in perſon thin, and when he ſtood at the bar on Tueſday, at Bow-ſtreet, ſtared around him with an unmeaning eye, apparently quite indifferent as to his ſituation.

Suicide.—Mrs. Martin, wife of Mr. Martin, tallow chandler, oppoſite York-houſe, Piccadilly, after returning home from Hyde-park, on Monday evening, about ſeven o'clock, with two of her children, ſaid to her huſband—'My dear, I ſhall call on my milliner in Jermyn-ſtreet.' Mr. Martin recommended her to let the children accompany her, when ſhe obſerved—'No; ſhould the children get together, they'll detain me too long.'

Mrs. Martin then left her husband, who, about eleven o'clock, began to be anxious for her return. He sent in vain to the milliner's, as she had not made her appearance there that evening. He was equally unsuccessful in his inquiries at several places, when he made the circle of all his friends to the same effect. He returned home about three o'clock in the morning, and his distracted state of mind induced him at last to send to Hyde-park, when at five o'clock in the morning it was discovered that she had drowned herself in the Serpentine river!—The coroner's inquest sat on Tuesday: it was proved, that at her last delivery she had caught cold, and contracted a brain fever; and that her late visit to a watering place, where she had incautiously bathed, had increased rather than diminished her mental derangement. The jury, therefore, returned a verdict of lunacy.

SEPTEMBER 19.

The prince of Wales on Sunday night, about eleven o'clock, coming out of Mrs. Fitzherbert's house, the prince made a false step (the steps to the house having been altered only a day or two before) which threw him on his back, and very much bruised the spinal bone. His royal highness was carried home, and put to bed, and Mr. Keate, the surgeon, instantly sent for from London. The bruise has occasioned excessive pain, and much personal inconvenience, as his royal highness cannot move. He still keeps his bed; but is not in the least danger, and expected to recover in a few days.

SEPTEMBER 23.

The right hon. the lords of the treasury have established, under the late act of parliament, the following bounties in the port of London, for the encouragement of the fisheries on the coasts of Great Britain, viz.

For the first greatest quantity of fresh cod, haddock, tusk, and ling fish, exposed and sold in Billingsgate market, from September 1, 1801, to April 1, 1802, by individuals or partnership company, a bounty of 300l.

Provided the aggregate quantity sold within the above period shall not be less than	Tons. 300
Second greatest quantity 250l. Provided the aggregate as above, shall not be less than	250
Third greatest quantity 175l.	175
Fourth greatest quantity 125l.	125
Fifth greatest quantity 100l.	100
Sixth greatest quantity 50l.	50

For the first greatest quantity of cod, haddock, ling, or tusk fish, corned, or slightly salted, exposed to sale by individuals, or partnership company, in Billingsgate market, from Sept. 1, 1801, to April 1, 1802, a bounty of 150l.

Provided the aggregate quantity sold within the above period shall not be less than	Tons. 300
Second greatest quantity 125l. Provided as before,	250
Third greatest quantity 100l.	200
Fourth greatest quantity 75l.	150
Fifth greatest quantity 50l.	100
Sixth greatest quantity 25l.	50

For the first greatest quantity of fresh skate, thornback, maids, and plaice, exported to sale in Billingsgate market, from October 1, 1801, to May 1, 1802, by individuals, or partnership company, a premium of 200l.

Provided the aggregate quantity actually sold shall not be less than	Tons. 300
Second greatest quantity 150l.	250
Third greatest quantity 100l.	150
Fourth greatest quantity 50l.	75

For the first greatest quantity of skate, thornback, maids, and plaice, corned or slightly salted, exposed to sale, in Billingsgate market, from October 1, 1801, to May 1, 1802, a premium of 100l.

Provided the aggregate quantity sold as above, shall not be less than	Tons. 200
Second greatest quantity 75l.	150
Third greatest quantity 50l.	100
Fourth greatest quantity 25l.	50

Similar bounties are also allowed on fresh mackarel, salted mackarel, fresh herrings, and salted herrings, fresh pilchards, and salted pilchards, and fresh sprats, under the like regulations and restrictions.

SEPTEMBER 24.

Yesterday, at the public office, Bow-street, Thomas Scott Smith, the canonical impostor, was finally examined before A. Graham, esq. respecting the forgery of the draft on messrs. Smith, Payne, and Smiths, for the sum of 10l. and which draft he negociated to Mr. Capper, of the Hungerford coffee house, in the Strand, as the draft of his father, although his father's name is Richard Smith, and the draft was signed Robert Smith. A clerk in the house of messrs. Smith, Payne, and Smiths, said, that Mr. Richard Smith, the prisoner's father, kept cash at their house, but that the draft in question was not his hand-writing. The charge of the forgery, therefore, being sufficiently established to carry the matter before a jury, the parties

were bound over to profecute him at the next Old Bailey feſſions.

The prince of Wales' late fall was ſo violent, that almoſt every muſcle has felt the painful effects of it. His royal highneſs complains principally of his back. He quits his bed only to make uſe of the tepid bath, which is prepared in an adjoining room, and to and from which he is under the neceſſity of being carried by his attendants. To ſatisfy the anxious inquiries into the ſtate of his royal highneſs' health, a bulletin has been regularly iſſued at the pavilion at Brighton, ſince yeſterday fe'nnight. That of laſt Saturday was in the following terms:

BULLETIN.

'His royal highneſs the prince of Wales ſtill continues to ſuffer pain and inconvenience from his accident; but his royal highneſs is perfectly well in health.'

Account of the trial of George Fearns, at the laſt Stafford Aſſizes, for forgery.

Explanation of the cant terms uſed in the following tria'.

Fow-work, Difficult.—*Swag*, A bundle of ſtolen goods.—*Spoke to*, Stolen.—*Screeve*, A forged Bank Note.—*Lickſome*, (a Lancaſhire phraſe) Lightſome, cheerful.—*Gone out of the Country*, Tranſported.—*Smaſhed*, Paid away —*Leg'd*, Taken into cuſtody.—*Sn'tching*, Impeaching, informing againſt.

In conſequence of information received by the Bank of England relative to Fearns, they ſent directions to their agents in Manchester, to lay ſome plan for the detection of the priſoner in the uttering of forged Bank notes. Inſtructions were, in conſequence, given to Mr. Nadin (the well-known and very active conſtable of Manchester) and on the 1ſt inſtant, Mr. Nadin, accompanied by Mr. Marſhal Knowles, another conſtable of Manchester, went to the houſe of Fearns, known by the name of the Bottom Public Houſe, four or five miles from Leek; it was near eleven at night when they arrived there; Nadin, under the name of William Oliver, and Knowles by his chriſtian name of Marſhall, diſguiſed as hawking ped'ars: as a confirmation of that being their buſineſs, they had with them a quantity of muſlins, prints, &c. with a one horſe chaiſe or cart. Fearns himſelf attended them, and the only obſervation Nadin thought proper to make that evening to the priſoner, was, 'It is bad times, and a man has *fow-work* to live honeſtly.' In the morning, at an early breakfaſt, of which Fearns partook, Nadin ordered ſome rum and milk, and juſtly ſuppoſing that a man who was guilty of one ſpecies of villainy, would not be very ſcrupulous, if opportunity offered, of committing another, found fault with the rum, and aſked where he bought it? Fearns replied, of a man at Mancheſter. Nadin ſaid he dealt in that article, and could help him to ſome very cheap: Fearns ſaid, I ſuppoſe you are a ſmuggler, but how low can you afford it? the other anſwered, at 6s. and 6s. 6d. a gallon; Fearns immediately ordered any quantity, but aſked how he could manage to ſend it, without the exciſeman knowing of it; Nadin informed him that he put a caſk of 20 or 21 gallons into a barrel of American flour, put flour round it, and ſent it as flour: Fearns ſaid, that was a good plan. Nadin and Knowles now ſhowed their goods to Fearns, aſking him a price, not a fourth part of their value; and Nadin ſaid to Knowles, 'Marſhall, when did that man ſay he would ſend the *ſwag*?' On which Fearns ſaid, he ſuppoſed they were *ſpoke to*, (pointing to the goods) which Nadin ſaid was the caſe. During the converſation relative to theſe goods, Nadin put down a forged Hallifax One Guinea Note; Fearns ſaid, he could not change it; Nadin told him he did not want it changed, he wanted him to look at it, and ſay if it was not *well done*; priſoner ſaid, he ſaw it was a forged one, and thought it was badly done. Nadin then aſked Knowles where the *ſcreeves* were, (on his uſing this cant term, he obſerved Fearn's countenance to change; he had looked rather gloomy before, but now he appeared quite *lickſome*;) Fearns ſaid, the *ſcreeve* buſineſs was very good two or three years ago, but one Jackſon quite ſpoiled it; Nadin aſked where Jackſon was? Fearns replied, 'he is *gone out of the country*, about ſome heifers.' Nadin now ſhowed him ſome forged Bank of England notes, (which he informed the Court he had from a perſon who was ſentenced to tranſportation at Cheſter aſſizes, for having them in his poſſeſſion;) Fearns ſaid, theſe were very badly executed; Nadin ſaid, he thought he had never ſeen any that were better done; he had *ſmaſhed* ſeveral, and had no doubt but he ſhould *ſmaſh* a great many more. Fearns aſked where he got them? Nadin ſaid he had them from one Ben. Baker, but he was at a loſs how to get any more, as Baker was run away. Fearns aſked, what he gave for the one pound *ſcreeves*? Nadin replied, 8s. and 6d. and 14s. for the two pounds. Fearns ſaid, that is the price

I give for them: but you muſt not offer to *ſmaſh* any in Leek or Congleton, for if you do you will be *leg'd* directly. Nadin ſaid he had *ſmaſhed* one at the Bull, in Congleton. Fearns ſaid, it is a wonder you was not *leg'd*: a man was taken up there a little time ago, who is now in Cheſter gaol, and has been *ſnitching* about me, and the conſtables and cavalry from Leek have been and ſearched my houſe, and ſeveral other houſes about here, that deal in the *ſcreeve* way. Nadin aſked him how he knew the man had *ſnitched* of him? He ſaid the man had wrote ſome letters to his friends at Walſall, which were directed to be left at my houſe, and when I ſaw the Cheſter poſt mark on them, I gueſſed who they were from, and ſo opened them. Priſoner then aſked Nadin, if he ever dealt in 5l. or 10l. *ſcreeves?* Nadin ſaid he never ſaw any: he wiſhed he could get ſome, and then he would go to Ireland, and by ſalt beef and pork, and could paſs any quantity there. Fearns ſaid, he did not mind if he went with them. Knowles, who had juſt before left the room, came in, and ſaid there was a man at the door, who he thought came from Mancheſter; on which Nadin ſaid, you muſt not let any body in here, theſe goods are all *ſpoke to*, and if any body ſees them and me, I ſhall be taken up; Fearns ſaid he might be quiet there, nobody ſhould come into that room; and added, I will ſhow you a 5l. *ſcreeve* before you go. He then went out to the perſon, who was a liquor-merchant, and in about an hour after returned to Nadin and Knowles, and brought with him a 5l. and 1l. note, ſaying, theſe *are* articles; look at mine and look at yours; Nadin ſaid he never ſaw a 5l. *ſcreeve* before, and aſked what he ſhould give for it? Fearns replied, he gave a guinea and a half for it; and, being again called out, twitched the note from Nadin, put it into his coat pocket, and went out of the room; after he had ſtaid ſome time, Nadin began to think he would not ſell any of the notes, he therefore directed Knowles, under the pretence of going for a *ſwag*, to fetch the conſtables from Leek, that Fearns might be apprehended under the late act of parliament, for having the notes in his poſſeſſion; but after Fearns had been abſent an hour, or more, he again returned, and holding two notes in his hand, Nadin offered him three guineas for them, ſuppoſing they were two 5l notes, on which Fearns looked earneſtly at him, and ſaid, aye man! but one is a 10l *ſcreeve*. Nadin then agreed with him for the 10l. note at three guineas, the 5l. one at one guinea and a half, and a 1l. note at half a guinea; he then put his hand into an inſide waiſtcoat pocket, and pulling out a canvas bag, took from it a 5l. and a 1l. note, which Nadin alſo wanted to buy; but priſoner refuſed to part with theſe, ſaying he was going into Yorkſhire ſoon, and could *ſmaſh* them for their full value; he then directed Nadin to attend to the dates of the notes, and to ſoil them accordingly; and ſaid, this muſt be done by rubbing them with a ſweaty hand, and all one way, that he muſt not ſqueeze or rumple them in his hand, as the imitation of the water-mark was done with a ſtiff ſubſtance, and if he ſqueezed it, it would break *all into holes*; he added, theſe are a good ſort; my brother Tom and I played the devil with them in Wales, laſt Cheſter fair; we went to the fair, and thence to Wales, where we *ſmaſhed* about 500l. worth. Nadin aſked in what he had laid them out; he replied, in horſes and cattle, which I took into Nottinghamſhire and ſold; I have a licence to deal in horſes. He then aſked Nadin if he knew Long Tom? He ſaid, do you mean Tom Morley? Fearns ſaid, he did not know his ſurname, but that was the man he had them of; he comes here, ſaid he, once a month; it is now three weeks ſince he was here; he will be here again next week, and you may then have any quantity. The conſtables from Leek were now arrived; Fearns was taken into cuſtody, and the next morning was committed to the county gaol by the Rev. Mr. Powis.

Mr. Nadin underwent a ſevere croſs examination by Mr. ſerjeant Williams, but without the leaſt variation in his evidence, which was fully confirmed by Mr. Knowles, whole evidence exactly correſponded with that of Mr. Nadin.

Mr. Glover, an inſpector from the Bank, proved that the ſeveral bills purchaſed by Mr. Nadin from the priſoner, and thoſe found upon him, were all forged.

The priſoner being called upon for his defence, ſaid he knew nothing of the notes in queſtion: he did not ſell them, and he had witneſſes to prove he did not.

James Bloor ſtated himſelf to be a bread baker, and dealer in flour, living near the priſoner's houſe; ſaid he was there at the ſame time, with Mr. Nadin and Mr. Knowles, and all the time that Knowles was abſent, during which no ſuch converſation as that ſtated by Mr. Nadin paſſed between him and the priſoner, nor

did he hear of or ſee any notes, which he muſt have done if the priſoner had ſold or paid any to Nadin; he alſo contradicted all the principal circumſtances.

The jury, without heſitation, found Fearns guilty.

Boor, the witneſs, was taken into cuſtody, the ſolicitor for the Bank undertaking to proſecute him for perjury at the next aſſizes.

Fearns was executed purſuant to his ſentence.

BIRTHS.

LADY of ſir H. Harper, bart. a ſon.

Lady of the hon. lord Hervey, a daughter.

MARRIAGES.

GEORGE Gardom, eſq. of Babnell, Derbyſhire, to miſs Jane Dennis, of Cooper's-row, Tower-hill.

Robert Waller Otway, eſq. captain of the Edgar, to miſs Holloway, daughter of rear-admiral Holloway.

John Frederick Pilney, eſq. of Somerton-earley, to miſs Dickinſon.

Mr. Fraſer, of Great Pulteney-ſtreet, to lady Croft, of Devonſhire-ſtreet.

William Hervey, eſq. of Bodwel-hall, Caernarvon, to the right hon. lady Dorothea Arabella Primroſe, youngeſt daughter of the earl of Roſeberry.

Henry Dixon, eſq. of Rotherhithe, to miſs Mary Addams, eldeſt daughter of R. Addams, eſq. of the ſame place.

Edmund Bacon, eſq. eldeſt ſon of ſir Edmund Bacon, bart. to miſs Bacon, daughter of Daſhwood Bacon, eſq. of Ottey St. Mary.

Rev. Hans Hamilton, ſon to the biſhop of Oſſory, to miſs Suſanna Oliver, daughter of the late right hon. Silver Oliver.

Lord Tara, of Bellinter, in the county of Meath, to miſs Powys, ſecond daughter of Thomas Jelf Powys, eſq. of Berwick houſe, Salop.

J. Bacon, eſq. ſculptor, to miſs Taylor, of High ſtreet, Southwark.

Brigadier-general John Murray, to miſs Maria Paſco.

William White, eſq. of Deal, to miſs Prieſtley, of Camberwell.

Bazil Montagu, eſq. of Gray's-inn, to miſs Ruſh, eldeſt daughter of ſir William Beaumarice Ruſh, of Wimbledon-houſe.

DEATHS.

REV. John Cleobury, vicar of Great Marlow, aged 83.

Lieutenant-general Macleod.

Lady Hannah Stratford, eldeſt daughter of the late earl of Aldborough.

Lady Mary Churchill, at Lewiſham.

Sydenham Singleton, eſq.

Sir Francis Ford, bart. at Barbadoes.

Rev. Robert Worgan, of Andover, Hants, aged 75.

John Slade, eſq. aged 81.

Sir George Warren, K. B.

Miſs Strachey, eldeſt daughter of ſir Henry Strachey, bart.

Hon. John Yorke, fourth ſon of Philip earl of Hardwicke, aged 73.

John Manly, eſq. ſenior bencher of the Middle Temple, aged 84.

William Tyler, eſq. R. A.

Right hon. lady Lucy Bridgeman, wife of the hon and rev. George Bridgeman.

Rev. Gilbert Wakefield, at Hackney.

Rev. Wyndham Sturt, rector of Down St. Mary, Devonſhire.

Abel Peyton, eſq. of Weſt Smithfield, aged 79.

Rev. Owen Manning, rector of Pepperharrow, Surry, aged 81.

Marquis of Downſhire.

Mrs. Griffith, relict of the late Chriſtopher Griffith, eſq. M. P. of Padworth, Berkſhire, aged 72.

Thomas Hammond, eſq. of Chelſea.

Sir Chriſtopher Sykes, of Sledmore-houſe, Yorkſhire.

John Markett, eſq. of Meopham, Kent, aged 80.

PROMOTIONS.

EDWARD duke of Kent, K. G.—colonel of the firſt (or royal) regiment of foot.

Sir James Saumarez, bart.—knight of the Bath.

Whitehall, Sept. 12. The king was pleaſed, by warrant under his royal ſignet and ſign manual, bearing date the 7th day of January laſt, to give and grant unto Horatio baron Nelſon of the Nile, and of Burnham Thorpe, in the county of Norfolk, (now viſcount Nelſon) knight of the moſt honourable military order of the Bath, and vice-admiral of the blue ſquadron of his majeſty's fleet, his royal licenſe and permiſſion to receive and bear the Great Croſs of the order of St. Ferdinand and of Merit, conferred upon him by Ferdinand IV, king of the Two Sicilies.

The king was alſo pleaſed, by warrant under his royal ſignet and ſign manual, bearing date the 9th of January laſt, to give and grant unto the ſaid Horatio baron Nelſon (now viſcount Nelſon) his royal licenſe and permiſſion to accept, for himſelf and

his heirs, the title of duke of Bronte, with the fief of the duchy annexed thereto, alſo conferred upon him by the ſaid king of the Two Sicilies.

Right hon. Murrough marquis of Thomond—to be baron Thomond, of Taplow Court, in the county of Buckingham.

George Clarke, eſq.—alderman of Baſſiſhaw-ward.

BANKRUPTS. From the GAZETTE.

AUGUST 25.

J. MAIR, Graveſend, plumber.

R. Stafford the younger, Huntingdon, grocer.

J. Beſwick, Hendon, baker.

J. Woodward, Derby, calico-manufacturer.

S. J. Gardner, Pitt-ſtreet, Southwark, mealman.

R. Walter, Plymouth-dock, hatter.

G. Deverell, Redbourn, Hertfordſhire, ſtraw hat manufacturer.

J. Hanion, Atherſtone, Warwickſhire, wine-merchant.

W. Ball, Derby, druggiſt.

AUGUST 29.

G. Riches, Queen-ſtreet, Cheapſide, warehouſeman.

E. Harding, Aldmonbury, Yorkſhire, merchant.

T. P. Wimberley, Huntingdon, grocer.

J. Flinders, Nottingham, hoſier.

M. Scott, H. Scott, and E. Appleby, Hinckley, Leiceſterſhire, hoſiers.

J. Quenby, Liverpool, tea-dealer.

W. Lomas, and G. Lomas, Needham-market, Suffolk, hawkers.

T. Garner the younger, Bread-ſtreet, warehouſeman.

SEPTEMBER 1.

W. Lomas, Needham-market, Suffolk, hawker.

R. Flux, Cirenceſter, Glouceſterſhire, carpenter.

W. Cantrell, Burton-upon-Trent, in Staffordſhire, druggiſt,

J. Quantrill, Duke-ſtreet, Portland-place, factor.

J. Hodſon, Stockport, Cheſter, ſhopkeeper.

J. Betſon, Waſhwood-heath, Warwickſhire, factor.

SEPTEMBER 5.

J. Wilkinſon, Bridlington, Yorkſhire, merchant.

J. Tollody, Miſtley, Eſſex, corn-merchant.

T. Eccles, Watling-ſtreet, wholeſale linen-draper.

J. Woodward, Derby, calico-manufacturer.

W. Woolgar, Minories, brazier.

SEPTEMBER 8.

B. Tipper, Derby, patten-ring-maker.

J. Shorland, Exeter, woollen-draper.

S. P. Bamford, J. Cooke, and J. F. Clifford, Tiverton, Somerſetſhire, worſted-manufacturers.

R. Stephens, Manchester, dealer in weft.

SEPTEMBER 12.

R. Ockenden, Bexhill, Suſſex, ſhopkeeper.

W. Whitehead, Laceby, Lincolnſhire, ſhopkeeper.

W. Brevitt, Wedneſbury, Staffordſhire, butcher.

J. Simms, Sheepy Patra, Leiceſterſhire, miller.

P. Morris, St. Martin's-court, St. Martin's-lane, hoſier.

L. Levy, and J. Levy, Oſborne-place, Whitechapel, vermicelli-manufacturers.

W. Scarbrow, St. Neot's, Huntingdon, baker.

E. Bridgman, Higham Ferrers, Northampton, baker.

SEPTEMBER 15.

T. Baker, and J. Shorland, Exeter, woollen-drapers.

J. Hitchcock, Hatton-garden, Holborn, dealer.

J. Pickering, Lower Eaton-ſtreet, Pimlico, dealer.

D. Tubbs, Liverpool, merchant.

T. Saul, and J. Reynolds, Manchester, wool-ſtaplers.

H. Keene, Cleeve Prior, Worceſterſhire, baker.

R. Allcorn, Hampton, blackſmith.

SEPTEMBER 19.

J. E. B. Bull, City-road, baker.

J. Wilſon, Birmingham, builder.

T. Fitt, Swanſea, Glamorganſhire, haberdaſher.

H. Roberts, Alderſgate-ſtreet, ſilk-weaver.

W. Beaumont, Healdy-burts, Yorkſhire, clothier.

J. Sanderſon, Preſton, Lancaſhire, and N. Sanderſon, Hoghton, Lancaſhire, cotton-manufacturers.

S. Fox, Wardour-ſtreet, Soho, cabinet-maker.

SEPTEMBER 19.

J. Hart, Old Compton-ſtreet, Soho, jeweller.

J. Harmer, Stroud, in Glouceſterſhire, clothier.

E. S. Shepherd, and J. Stanley, Liverpool, merchants.

J. Dean. Strand, laceman.
M. Bairſtow, Thornſton Mill, Yorkſhire, corn-miller.

SEPTEMBER 26.

R. Porter the younger, Derby, grocer.
R. K. Thomas, Eveſham, Worceſter, mercer.
W. Simonds, Market-ſtreet, St. James', grocer.
J. Britton, Birmingham, jeweller.
A. Cartwright, Darlaſton, Staffordſhire, baker.
J. Jones, Birmingham, draper.
J. Milner, Haymarket, baker.
J. George, Piccadilly, draper.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

[In boards, or ſewed, at the Prices affixed.]

SKRINE's Account of all the Rivers of Note in Great Britain, 8vo, 10s 6d.
Chronological Tables. 18mo, 3s.
Gerrard's (Eliſabeth) Miſcellanies, ſmall 8vo, 4s.
Cabinet, or Natural Hiſtory of Quadrupeds, &c. 2 vol. 12mo, 8s.
Belſham's Philoſophy of the Mind, 8vo, 9s.
Baudelocque's Memoirs on the Ceſarian Operation, by Hull, 8vo, 6s.
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Render's Tour through Germany, 2 vol. 8vo, 16s.
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AVERAGE PRICES of CORN.

September 19, 1801.

By the Wincheſter Quarter of 8 Buſhels.

Inland Counties.

	Wheat.		Rye.		Barley.		Oats.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Middleſex	87	5	53	4	39	2	34	5
Surry	94	2	46	0	50	6	31	0
Hertford	83	1	54	0	42	0	33	6
Bedford	79	10	52	8	59	0	36	4
Huntingdon	87	1	——		46	0	22	6
Northampton	90	10	——		52	6	23	0
Rutland	99	0	50	0	59	0	36	0
Leiceſter	92	9	——		48	0	26	7
Nottingham	101	6	63	0	64	0	31	4
Derby	99	4	——		63	6	35	0
Stafford	96	6	——		53	9	32	6
Salop	85	8	57	2	57	0	37	0
Hereford	83	8	65	6	51	2	30	0
Worceſter	100	10	——		58	7	39	3
Warwick	100	4	——		54	5	33	11
Wilts	92	8	56	0	59	4	32	4
Berks	87	8	40	0	41	6	33	0
Oxford	99	2	——		45	6	32	5
Bucks	83	4	——		45	0	30	9
Brecon	68	0	——		51	3	20	11
Montgomery	81	7	54	4	47	5	24	0
Radnor	74	10	——		55	6	29	5

Maritime Counties.

Eſſex	85	0	45	9	46	4	34	6
Kent	86	3	——		40	6	28	7
Suſſex	99	10	——		——		32	0
Suffolk	89	8	50	0	49	0	29	4
Cambridge	90	9	56	4	48	0	23	7
Norfolk	91	4	46	0	44	1	27	0
Lincoln	91	10	——		48	7	23	4
York	84	7	51	10	49	10	25	10
Durham	72	4	51	5	43	10	23	6
Northumberland	75	8	44	0	32	1	25	6
Cumberland	102	3	69	9	58	8	37	10
Weſtmorland	99	7	70	0	54	0	38	4
Lancaſter	88	1	——		32	0	32	0
Cheſter	86	8	——		——		33	8
Flint	90	8	——		62	5	——	
Denbigh	86	1	——		61	4	30	2
Angleſea	80	0	——		40	0	——	
Carnarvon	79	0	60	0	49	4	30	0
Merioneth	80	5	66	8	44	10	26	0
Cardigan	81	11	——		52	6	——	
Pembroke	87	6	——		47	8	——	
Carmarthen	75	8	——		45	0	16	0
Glamorgan	81	11	——		54	0	23	3
Glouceſter	106	6	——		57	4	30	3
Somerſet	93	0	——		48	0	28	2
Monmouth	83	6	——		50	11	38	8
Devon	91	10	——		45	11	25	7
Cornwall	97	8	——		47	6	26	2
Dorſet	94	6	——		50	11	31	6
Hants	98	4	——		50	3	35	10

Average of England and Wales.

Per Quarter	88	10	54	8	49	9	30	0

Sept. 17—Peck Loaf, 4s 2d.

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D.	H.	Baro.	T.out	T.in.	H.	C.	Wind.	Weather, &c. Rain 1,69
1	7	29,78	62,5	66	69	3	S 1	. little rain. fine
	2	29,84	70	68	62	3	SW 1	. ſhower. fine. lightning N at night
2	7	30,04	61,5	66	69	3	SW 1	: little rain
	2	30,08	68,5	67,5	66	5	SW 1	chiefly rain. fine night: little rain
3	7	30,16	62	66	72	h	W 0	. much gentle rain: fine
	2	30,20	66,5	67,5	70	3	W 1	. thunder ſhower. much rain: fine
4	7	30,26	55,5	63	72	h	ENE 1	. fine
	2	30,26	69	66	63	2	W 1	. more cloudy and little wet at times
5	7	30,25	60,5	65	67	h	NE 1	. cloudy
	2	30,28	68	67,5	66	5	N 1	. fine
6	7	30,36	62	65,5	66	1	ENE 1	: cloudy
	2	30,39	71,5	68	61	5	N 1	. fine
7	7	30,47	62	66	68	2	N 1	
	2	30,49	74	69	60	1	NNE 1	
8	7	30,48	58,5	63,5	67	1	NE 1	
	2	30,43	73	68,5	61	2	NE 1	. cloudy night
9	7	30,37	60,5	65	64	4	ENE 2	
N	2	30,34	68	67	62	4	NE 2	. fine: litte rain
10	7	30,30	61	64,5	69	4	E 2	. fine
	2	30,27	73,5	68	56	1	NE 1	
11	7	30,23	61	65	68	2	NE 1	
	2	30,20	75	69	55	1	E 2	
12	7	30,16	63	66	75	2	N 1	
	2	30,11	75	71,5	60	2	NNE 2	. cloudy. fine eve: rain
13	7	29,99	63	67,5	74	5	N 1	much rain
	2	29,96	69	70	74	5	NW 2	much gentle rain and ſhowers at night
14	7	30,01	63	67	74	4	N 2	. fine
	2	30,07	71	69,5	65	2	N 1	. cloudy eve
15	7	30,23	62	67	69	3	N 1	. thick upward. fine
	2	30,29	70	68,5	63	2	NE 2	. cloudy night
16	7	30,39	63	65,5	71	4	NNE 2	. fine
	2	30,41	70	68,5	66	2	ENE 2	. cloudy at times
17	7	30,47	59,5	65	69	2	ESE 1	. cloudy at times
	2	30,44	74	69	63	2	SSE 1	
18	7	30,36	60	63	70	h	ENE 1	. fine
	2	30,35	72,5	68,5	61	1	E 1	
19	7	30,32	59,5	64	68	h	ENE 1	. fine
	2	30,27	74	69	59	0	E 2	
20	7	30,20	61	64	70	h	E 1	. fine
	2	30,14	77	71	62	0	E 2	
21	7	30,19	62	66,5	75	h	ENE 1	
	2	30,21	70	69	66	4	E 1	. fine. cloudy night
22	7	30,27	61	65,5	75	3	NE 1	
	2	30,31	72	68	65	2	E 1	. clear night
23	7	30,35	55,5	62	69	1	ENE 1	
F	2	30,35	68,5	66	55	1	E 1	
24	7	30,20	54	61	67	1	E 1	
	2	30,27	71,5	66,5	60	3	NNW 1	. cloudleſs night
25	7	30,33	57	63	67	1	NNE 1	
	2	30,33	68,5	65,5	68	2	NNE 1	: cloudy
26	7	30,31	61	64	60	5	SSE 1	. leſs cloudy but hazy
	2	30,28	67	66	61	5	SSW 1	hazy. fine night
27	7	30,24	61	63	67	2	ENE 1	hazy
	2	30,18	71	66	55	3	ESE 1	. cloudleſs night
28	7	30,11	54,5	62,5	64	1	ESE 1	hazy
	2	30,08	70,5	66	59	3	NNW 1	. foggy eve. clear
29	7	30,05	58	64	64	2	WSW 1	hazy
	2	30,01	73,5	68	59	2	W 1	. more cloudy night
30	7	30,01	61,5	66,5	68	4	W 1	. leſs cloudy at times
	2	29,99	74	69	60	3	W 2	: little gentle rain
31	7	29,79	63	66,5	74	h	WSW 1	gentle rain. fair and wind N
	2	29,75	67	68	69	5	N 1	. fine. clear night

PRICES of STOCKS, from AUGUST 29 to SEPTEMBER 26 1801, both inclusive.

By ANTHONY CLARKE, Stockbroker, No. 29, Princes-Street, Lothbury.

1801	Bank Stock.	3 per C. reduced.	3 per C. consols.	4 per C. Anns.	Old 5 per C. Conf.	New 5 per C. Anns.	Long Anns.	Short Anns.	India Stock.	Imperial 3 per C.	Imperial Ann.	Exchequer Bills.	Engliſh Lot. Tic.	Iriſh Lot. Tic.
29	169	61 ⅛	60 ¾ ⅜	81 ¼	96 ⅛	97 ⅛	18 ⅞	5 ⅜	198	60 ⅛	11 ⅞	1s. dif.	15 18 0	
31		61 ⅛	60 ¾ ⅜	81 ¼	96	97 ⅜	18 ¾	5 ⅜		60 ⅛		1		
1	168 ½	61 ⅛	60 ¾ ⅜	81 ⅜	96 ⅛	97 ⅜	18 ¾		197 ½	60 ⅛		1		
2														
3	168 ½	shut.	60 ½ 60	81 ½	96	97 ⅛	18 ⅞	5 ⅜	195 ¾			2		
4	168 ½		60 ¾ 59 ⅞	81	95 ⅞	shut.	18 ⅞	5 ⅜	195 ¼			2		
5	shut.		60 ¼ 60 ⅛	81	95 ⅞		18 ⅞	5 ⅜				1		
7			59 ⅞ 60 ⅜	shut.	95 ⅜		shut.	shut.	195 ¼	59 ¾		1		
8			59 ¾ 60						195			1		
9			59 ⅞ 60 ⅛		95 ⅛				195	58 ¾		1		
10			60 ¼ 59 ⅞		95 ⅛				197 ½		11 ⅛	1		
11			59 ¾ ⅛		95 ⅛					59 ⅜	11 ⅛	1		
12			59 ¾ ⅛		94 ¾							par		
14			59 ¼ 60 ⅜		95 ⅛					59 ⅛		1		
15			60 59 ⅞		95 ⅛				195	59 ⅛	11 ⅝	1		
16			59 ¾ ¾		95 ⅜					59 ½		par		
17			59 ¾ ¾		95 ⅛						11 ¾	1		
18			59 ⅞ ⅛		95 ⅛					59 ⅝		1	15 10 0	
19			59 ¾ ⅛		94 ⅜							1		
21			59 ¾ ⅛									par		
22			59 ⅝ ¼									1		
23			59 ¾ ¼		95					59 ⅜	11 ⅜	1		
24			59 ¾ ¼		94 ⅝				195 ¼		11 ⅜	1		
25			59 ¾ ¼		94 ⅝					59	11 ⅜	1		
26			59 ⅞ ¼		94 ⅝					59 ⅜	11 ⅝	1		

☞ In the 3 per Cent. conſols. the higheſt and loweſt Price of each Day is given; in every other Article the higheſt Price only, the Long, Short, and Imperial Annuities excepted, which are given within a ſixteenth of the higheſt Price. In the different Funds that are ſhut, the Prices are given with the Dividend till the Days of Opening.